PRACTICAL HANDBOOK

OF

MODERN LIBRARY CATALOGING

By

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TO

MY MOTHER

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

The first edition of this little book having been exhausted, I have prepared a second edition, bringing the book down to date by noting recent discussions in the library press and the appearance of recent codes of cataloging rules and certain important catalogs in book form. A few errors have been corrected, and the text has been slightly enlarged. In the main, however, the book is essentially a reprint of the first edition.

It is perhaps worth while to say again that the book is written from the standpoint of library administration. It is a manual of cataloging practice on the administrative side, rather than a guide to the cataloging of individual books or a discussion of the theory of entry. It is exactly these questions of direction, of administration, which are usually ignored in cataloging codes of manuals, which I have aimed to cover in this brief work.

WILLIAM WARNER BISHOP

Ann Arbor, Michigan
February 14, 1924

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION

In setting examinations in library science, including cataloging, for the United States Civil Service Commission for several years, I was constantly struck by the absence in our professional literature of any manual of the actual practice of cataloging. There are numerous codes of rules and articles on the theory of cataloging. But something which should tell a student of library administration just what has to be done under modern conditions and why it should be done seemed lacking. I have accordingly written this brief handbook in an endeavor to supply this need.

To librarians and catalogers trained in their work by long years of service much of what is here set forth will doubtless seem very obvious and commonplace. I have had constantly in mind two sorts of persons by whom librarians have been much besought for years past for information as to "how to do it." One group—and by far the larger—is composed of young people entering on the professional study of library processes either in library schools or without formal instruction. The other is the comparatively small, but actually large, number of persons who for one reason or another find themselves charged with the responsibility for the work of a library without having themselves served an apprenticeship in all its branches. The point of view in this little book is throughout that of the administration of the library as a

whole, rather than that of the conduct of cataloging work alone.

Modern American cataloging practice is based on the printed card supplied from a central bureau—at present the Card Section of the Library of Congress. Over six hundred thousand titles are now available, and the number grows by over fifty thousand a year. Naturally this fundamental principle of modern cataloging is absent from both the older works on cataloging and library economy, and the British and foreign treatises on those subjects. But even the present large supply is not yet equal to the demand—so diverse are the contents of our libraries. Hence the process of making cards in each library for all books added—formerly universal—still requires description and study.

The final chapter on Subject Headings is the only venture in the book into the realm of cataloging theory, justifiable, it was thought, because of the dearth of books on this most important branch of cataloging.

I have been greatly aided by the criticisms of Miss Agnes Van Valkenburgh, instructor in cataloging in the Library School of the New York Public Library, and of Dr. G. E. Wire, Deputy Librarian of the Worcester County Law Library, Worcester, Mass., who have kindly read the manuscript. Of course they are in no way chargeable for the opinions set forth. I desire to express to them my hearty thanks for their courtesy in thus aiding me.

WILLIAM WARNER BISHOP

Washington, D. C.
April 15, 1914

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CHAPTER I

Brief Sketch of the History of Library Cataloging

We have practically no knowledge of the details of administration of the libraries of the ancients. That they had catalogs is inherent in the nature of things. There are a few references to lists, such as the πίνακες of the celebrated Alexandrian library, but no description on which we may base any statement of method in either Greek or Roman libraries.[1] The catalogs that remain to us of mediaeval libraries were printed by Becker at Bonn in 1885. Those prior to the thirteenth century Becker gave in full; later catalogs he merely listed by title with indications of the places where they were printed.[2]

With the invention of printing and the consequent rapid growth of libraries both in number and size, catalogs of libraries in book form began to appear and have continued to the present day. Despite their number—which is legion—few, if any, of the earlier printed library catalogs have much significance as models at the present day. In general it may be said that (with a few notable

[1] The well known passage in Quintilian, *Instit. Orat.* x, 1, 57, is frequently cited as proving the use of catalogs in Roman libraries.

[2] Becker, Gustav. Catalogi bibliothecarum antiqui. I. Catalogi saeculo xiii vetustiores. II. Catalogus catalogorum posterioris aetatis. Bonnae, apud Max Cohen et Filium (Fr. Cohen). A. MDCCCLXXXV. p. iv, 229.

exceptions) the great libraries were unable to publish catalogs revealing their contents in full. Manuscript entries in various styles of ledgers were commonly resorted to as a means of providing an index to the collections. Catalogs of special collections, as those of mediaeval manuscripts, were more frequently entrusted to print. This is the plan still prevailing in many libraries of distinction on the continent of Europe—a book (or ledger) catalog with entries in writing (occasionally in print) for the general collection, kept up to date by pasting in slips or writing additional entries as nearly in place as possible; and printed catalogs of those portions which because of their value or their form demand special treatment.[3]

In England and later in America it became the fashion for public and subscription libraries to print brief catalogs of their books. Of course such catalogs required supplements at frequent intervals. The book catalog—frequently exhibiting the briefest form of entry—was the typical library publication up to the third quarter of the nineteenth century. Our older libraries possess scores of them—useful as finding-lists at the time issued—

[3] In part at least this form persists because of the undoubted convenience of being able to scan rapidly a large number of titles, as contrasted with the greater difficulty of consulting a card catalog with speed. Certain large European libraries deliberately reject the card catalog and assume the double burden of lack of exact alphabetical order and frequent renewal of pages chiefly because of this convenience of consultation.

but too often curiosites with but slight historical value a couple of decades later.

The convenience of the catalog in book form has been, and always will be, its chief merit. Certain very notable achievements marked this fashion of recording a library's contents. Chief of these is the great *Catalogue of Printed Books* of the British Museum.[4]

The high authority of this catalog, based on Panizzi's "Rules," and the wealth of the library revealed by its pages have made it the one great and indispensable cataloging tool for librarians and literary students the world over. But—very significantly—it stops with the year 1899. The annual accessions catalog goes on, as do the numerous special catalogs.

Two very notable printed catalogs of moderately large libraries have appeared in Great Britain in recent years. These are the catalogs of the London Library and of the Edinburgh University Library. The London Library issued a remarkably well printed and edited catalog in book form in 1903[5] in one volume of 1626 pages. Eight annual supplements followed, and in 1913–1914 a new two volume catalog[6] of 2754 pages was issued to replace the earlier one. These two catalogs should be studied

[4] Catalogue of Printed Books in the Library of the British Museum. London, W. Clowes and Sons, Ltd., 1881–1900; Supplement, 1900–1906.

[5] *Cf.* my review in *Library Journal*, Oct. 1903, p. 733–34.

[6] Catalogue of the London Library, St. James Square, London. By C. T. Hagbert Wright and C. J. Purnell. 2 vols. London, 1913–1914.

carefully, particularly their prefaces, in which certain very impressive figures are given for the costs of printing and of preparation of copy. In 1909 the same library printed an even more remarkable "Subject Index"[7] in a single volume of three columns to a page, a veritable marvel of condensation, abbreviation, and cataloging skill.

The University of Edinburgh[8] has likewise attempted the heroic task of an author catalog in three volumes. It has taken a quarter of a century to carry this through. The catalog was begun in 1899, and printing was actually started in 1915. The first volume was issued in 1918 and the third in 1923. There are 4138 pages of two wide columns each in these three volumes. The typography is well nigh perfect—clear, distinct, and legible. Of course these two libraries are not comparable in size to the great national collections. But they are each of nearly four hundred thousand volumes. And these two recent catalogs are certainly a challenge to those who have accepted as almost axiomatic the practical impossibility of printing good catalogs in convenient form.

The Bibliothéque Nationale of France has attempted the publication of a catalog of authors on a similar scale. But though begun in 1897, the *Catalogue général des*

[7] Subject-Index of the London Library. By C. T. Hagbert Wright. . . . London, Williams and Norgate, 1909.

The preface of this work abounds in practical suggestions regarding subject cataloging. *Cf.* H. R. Tedder, *Library Journal*, Nov., 1909, p. 492.

[8] Catalogue of the printed books in the Library of the University of Edinburgh. 3 vols. Edinburgh University Press, 1918–1923.

livres imprimés has reached but the letter I in seventy-five large volumes. The cost in time and money of such an enterprise is too vast for any but a national treasury.

In this country the most notable printed catalogs in book form have been those of the Boston Athenaeum,[9] the Astor Library, the Peabody Institute of Baltimore, the Surgeon General's Library, and the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh.

To these should perhaps be added the excellent catalogs of the Brooklyn Library and of the Detroit Public Library. The latter affords an admirable example of the difficulties under which this form of catalog labors. Published originally in 1899 with some 1100 pages (exclusive of fiction and French and German books), it sufficed (with annual lists of additions) until 1894, when a supplement of almost 900 pages was required. In 1899 appeared a second supplement of 860 pages bringing the list down to 1898. Already there

[9] Boston Athenaeum. Catalogue of the Library, 1807–1871. 5 vols., by Charles A. Cutter.

Peabody Institute, Baltimore. Catalogue of the Library of the Peabody Institute. 5 vols. Baltimore, 1883–92. Second Catalogue, 8 vols. 1896–1905.

Astor Library, New York. Catalogue. 5 vols. New York, 1857–1866. Continuation, 4 vols. Cambridge, 1886–1888.

U. S. Surgeon-General's Office. Library. Index-Catalogue of the Library. 16 vols. Washington, 1880–1895. Second series, 21 vols. 1896–1916. Third series, 3 vols. [A-Coffart] 1918–1922.

Pittsburgh, Carnegie Library. Classified catalogue, 1895–1902. 3 vols. Pittsburgh, 1907. 1902–1906, 5 vols. Pittsburgh, 1907–1908, 1907–1911, 6 vols., 1912–1913. 1912–1916, 3 vols., 1921–1922.

were three places in which to look for books by a given author or on a given topic. The expense of editing and printing such a series becomes prohibitive exactly as its usefulness as a timely working tool diminishes.

The **Card Catalog** is a development of the nineteenth century, although it was known in France in the eighteenth. Its rapid spread and adoption in libraries and commercial institutions (to an even greater extent than in libraries) is one of the most significant features of modern library history. Practically all American libraries of importance use the card form of catalog, even when they also publish extensive book catalogs.

The earlier manuals and rules of cataloging were all based on the assumption that the cataloger who made the first entry for a book would also make all the additional entries, i.e., subject cards, reference cards, title cards, etc. Consequently in order to save the time of the cataloger, (perhaps also with a view to saving manual labor and time of subordinate helpers in the library, and even the reader's time and strength), the various cards for different purposes varied in fullness, the main entry card being generally the fullest. The other cards were shortened by the omission of certain details. Thus one card only would bear all the information necessary to the complete identification of a book, while the other (shorter) cards would, it was thought, serve most practical purposes.

The chief defects of this method lay in the time consumed in manufacturing cards (even with these devices

for shortening the processes and the drudgery) on the part of a trained specialist in cataloging, the time expended in the necessary revision of the manual work of reproduction (whether done by pen or typewriter), and finally the time necessarily lost by readers in consulting the catalog even when the plainest "library hand" or the best typewriters were employed. Libraries, though progressive enough to use the card catalog, had not emerged into the era of printing for this record of their contents. The issue had ordinarily been a clear one. Either a printed catalog in book form which was generally out of date before publication, and whose cost was prohibitive for institutions hard pressed for funds by development in directions other than cataloging—or else a card catalog, easily kept up to date and manufactured at practically the cost of preparing copy for the printer, but somewhat clumsy of operation and necessarily less quickly scanned than the printed page.[10]

Everything pointed to substituting printed card catalogs for printed book catalogs, particularly in libraries which needed to use many entries for each book, not alone in their public card catalogs, but in "official" catalogs, shelf-lists, accession records, binding lists, serial records, and the like. Theorists had pointed out as

[10] An additional drawback to the card catalog, long felt in scholarly libraries, was the fact that on the standard size card adopted soon after the organization of the American Library Association in 1876 there was frequently not space for the detailed written description of a book.

early as 1851,[11] that a printed card was the logical accompaniment of the printed book. Efforts were made by the Library Bureau in the early nineties to make the supplying of printed catalog cards a commercial possibility, but with only indifferent success. Various American libraries began printing cards for their own use between 1890 and 1900. The American Library Association undertook through its Publishing Board to supply printed cards for certain sets and serials. Finally the Library of Congress, which had begun in 1899 to print cards for copyrighted books, undertook in 1901 to apply this method not alone to copyright entries but to all its books, and to sell its cards to other libraries. Thus the Library of Congress became in effect a central cataloging bureau for the United States—and for other countries—so far as its cards met the needs of other libraries.

[11] Jewett, Charles Coffin. A plan for stereotyping catalogues by separate titles, and for forming a general stereotyped catalogue of public libraries of the United States. Washington, 1851. (*Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science*, August, 1850.)

Jewett, Charles Coffin. On the construction of catalogues of libraries, and of a general catalogue: and their publication by means of separate, stereotyped titles. With rules and examples. Washington, Smithsonian Institution, 1852.

Cf. also Jahr, Torstein, and Strohm, Adam Julius. Bibliography of coöperative cataloguing and the printing of catalogue cards, with incidental references to international bibliography and the Universal catalogue (1850–1902). In Report of the Librarian of Congress, 1902. App. vi, p. 109–224.

The initial stages were not wholly easy, and were marked by delays and difficulties incident both to the establishment of a new enterprise, the agreement on a new code of rules, and the prosecution of a cataloging and classifying task of unparalleled magnitude. For the Library of Congress had undertaken the systematic treatment of its entire collections, numbering some 800,000 volumes in 1899, and its annual accessions, which were about 30,000 volumes at that date, but soon sprang to over 100,000 a year. But the work, once thoroughly established and a routine elaborated, has developed to a point where the purchase and use of printed catalog cards from the Card Division of the Library of Congress is the order of the day in practically all libraries of any size in the country, as well as in many in Canada. Probably in the near future further developments in the direction of coöperative cataloging may be expected.[12] It is entirely possible that within a couple of decades one may buy standard size printed cards for any modern book at the time the book is bought.

[12] *Cf.* Richardson, E. C. Cumulative printed catalog for large libraries. *Library Journal*, Jan., 1916, vol. 41, p. 28–31.

Blease, Wm. Coöperative Cataloging. *Library Association Record*, Dec., 1914: reprinted *Library Journal*, Oct., 1915, vol. 40, p. 708–713.

CHAPTER II

Rooms and Equipment

THE CATALOGING ROOMS

In an old building adapted for library use the rooms devoted to cataloging must frequently be inconvenient in shape and badly placed with reference to the other activities of the library. But even in such uncomfortable cases a proper planning of the available space with regard to light, location of desks and apparatus, book shelves, and the like may aid in making the most of circumstances. Such provisions for the comfort of the staff and the speed of the work as are possible in a new structure may be at least approximated by careful and ingenious supervision. Attention to the details discussed in this chapter may then, result in a decided improvement of arrangements in old and not wholly comfortable quarters.

In new buildings various elements enter into the location of the catalog rooms and the shape and size to be given them. The tendency to curtail working space has proven unfortunate again and again. While it is impossible to forecast with accuracy the future of cataloging in any given library, it seems highly improbable that the relative number of catalogers in proportion to the whole force is likely to be greatly diminished with the

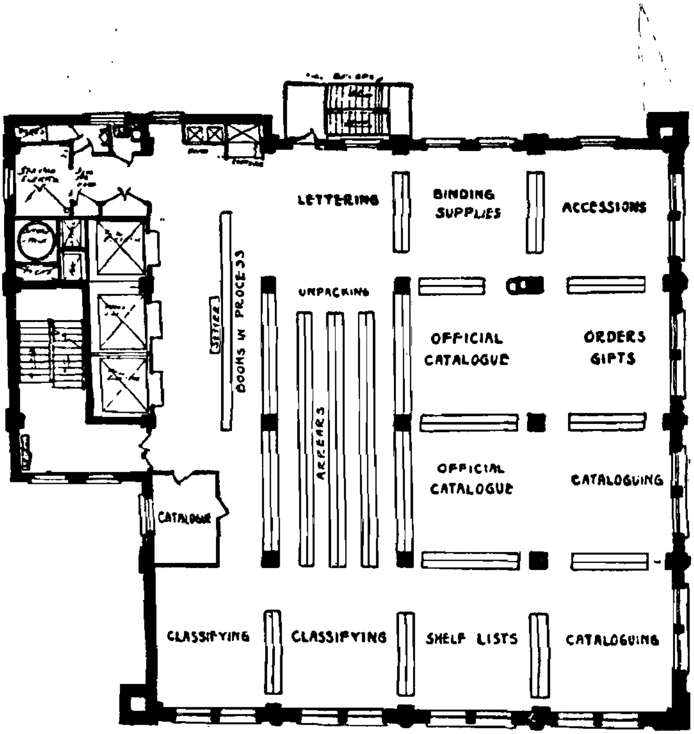
progress of coöperative cataloging. It would be safer to err on the side of generosity in the space accorded to the cataloging force. If a library now has ten or a dozen persons employed in cataloging work, it will be well to plan for at least fifteen or twenty persons in providing space in a new building. This is a conservative estimate. Many libraries have found themselves hampered by cramped and crowded cataloging rooms within a year or two of entering on the use of new buildings supposedly adequate for decades to come. A new building usually means increased use, enlargement of resources, and hence a larger staff.

Location of Room. The catalog room should of course be near the other rooms assigned to the working force which prepares books for the shelves. It should, if possible, be part of a large room or of a series of rooms devoted to this purpose and on the same floor with the order clerks, classifiers and shelf-listers, etc. At the same time it is advisable to have the catalog room not far removed from the public catalog. It is inevitable that there shall be much going to and fro between the two, and the shorter the distance the less the time lost. The catalog room should also be convenient to the book stacks and it is very desirable that entrance from it to the stacks be had without passing through reading rooms or public corridors. Moreover as much natural light as possible should be furnished the catalogers since their work calls for continuous use of the eyes for practically

the whole of their working day. Entrance to the cataloging room should be from corridors or halls, rather than through other rooms.

In small library buildings there is not so much need to insist on all these requirements. But even in small buildings the factors of comparative quiet, short distances, convenient access to stacks and public catalog can not well be ignored. In large buildings care in planning these matters will save countless steps, constant loss of energy, and unnecessary interruptions.

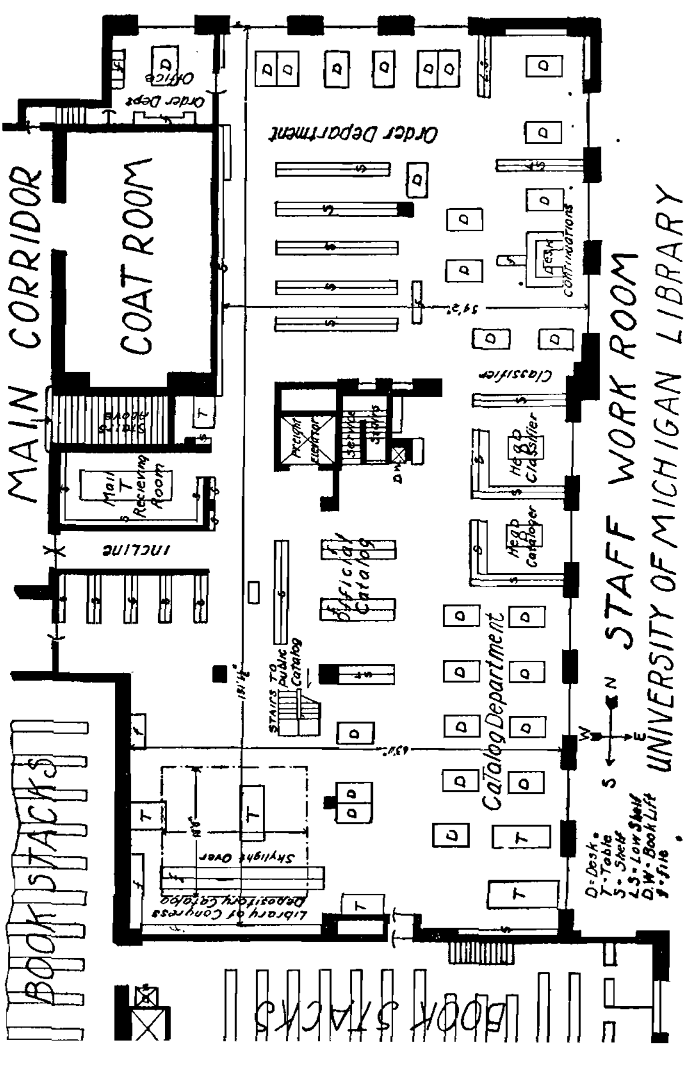
Floor Plan of Catalog Room. A cataloging room (or rooms) must have (1) desks and chairs for catalogers and copyists, (2) ample aisle space for book trucks and for the movement of persons, (3) floor space for revolving bookcases and for booktrucks at catalogers' desks, (4) shelves for reference books, (5) card catalog cases for both official catalogs and card bibliographies, (6) space for certain minor mechanical apparatus and for washstand, etc., (7) closets or locker and cabinet space for supplies. These various items are dwelt upon in detail in the following pages. A cataloger's desk (5 by 2½ feet), chair, bookcase, and a truck of books with floor and aisle space for free movement will require a space *at least* 10 feet by 6, or 60 square feet of floor. This does not allow for catalog cases, bookshelves, etc., etc., which must be figured separately. A minimum of 100 square



TENTH FLOOR

JOHN CRERAR LIBRARY

PLATE 2


MAIN CORRIDOR
COAT ROOM
Office
Order Dept
Order Department
Classifier
Head Classifier
Head Cataloger
Mail Recieving Room
INCLINE
Freight Elevator
Service Stairs
Official Catalog
STAIRS TO Public Catalog
Catalog Department
Skylight Over
Library of Congress Depository Catalog
STAFF WORK ROOM
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN LIBRARY
BOOK STACKS
BOOK STACKS
D=Desk
T=Table
S=Shelf
LS=Low Shelf
D.W.=Book Lift
f=file

feet to a person is usually allowed in planning offices of this sort.[1]

The desks should be placed with reference to the light from the windows, so that the light comes naturally on the left of the catalogers when seated at the desks. The other arrangements of the room should in most cases be subordinated to this of the relations between windows and desks.[2]

The ventilation must conform, of course, to the general ventilating and heating system of the building. If, however, the location of the catalogers' desks is planned in advance with reference to the windows it will be possible to avoid direct currents of either hot or cold air on persons seated at these desks.

Furniture. A generous material equipment will aid greatly in maintaining a high standard of work. If the air is bad and the equipment inadequate, an even and high-class output is difficult to maintain. The catalogers' desks should be flat and reasonably large.

[1] See Plate 1 for the floor plan of the cataloging and classifying room of the John Crerar Library of Chicago—a typical example of necessarily cramped quarters owing to limited ground area. Plate 2 gives the layout of the Staff Work Room in the University of Michigan Library in which the ground area is large. Note the relation of the different departments—order, classification, cataloging—to each other and to the book-stacks.

[2] The artificial light for the desks is best supplied in the form of individual desk lamps, not neglecting, however, some provision for general illumination of the room. Whenever there is need for night work the desk lights alone are insufficient. Switches should always be near the entrance to the room.

There is a decided gain in efficiency if the chairs are carefuly fitted to the individual workers, if proper foot-rests are provided, and if book trucks and trays are furnished in sufficient quantity to do away with strain in handling steadily large numbers of heavy books. Care in these matters will surely pay in results. Eye-strain resulting from facing windows or similar faults of position should be carefully avoided. When one remembers the extreme demands which ordinary cataloging (not to mention revision of copying or proof), makes on the eyes, and the further fact that cataloging calls for continual attention week in and week out to minute details of books and cards, precautions to avoid eye-strain become plain business sense. Even in small libraries such precautions can not be neglected with impunity.

Small revolving bookcases at each desk are almost a necessary part of the cataloging equipment. So also are trays for catalog cards, and desk drawers fitted with compartments of standard card size.

Machinery. In addition to other furniture, there is usually needed a certain amount of machinery in a catalog room. Typewriters are provided in many libraries for the writing of *all* cards. There is considerable question as to the wisdom of this practice when there are several employees of various grades engaged in cataloging work. In such cases the wiser plan seems to be to confine the compulsory use of the machine to copyists or subordinate workers, and to continue the ancient

practice of writing the original card by hand with the pen. When the cataloging is very simple, and can be done rapidly, perhaps there is gain in the use of the typewriter. When, however, judgment, accuracy, and selection are the important factors, as in most research libraries, and in all large institutions having many recondite books, the item of speed in writing is of secondary importance, and the advantage of the typewriter for the initial card disappears.

In addition to typewriters, other forms of duplicating machinery, hectograph, multigraph, flexotype, and the like, seem likely to become a necessary part of the cataloging room's equipment. Perhaps a small printing press, such as that used in some libraries for printing subject headings on purchased cards, is also to be a future requisite. Floor space and light for the accommodation in proper form of these mechanical aids should be provided, even if at present they are not installed.

Miscellaneous Equipment. It should almost go without saying that there should be telephone connection (both internal and external) in the cataloging room. A properly screened stationary washstand with hot and cold water should also be provided. Books are invariably dusty, and in cataloging work it is necessary to cleanse the hands frequently. A supply of individual towels should of course be a part of the equipment, as is required by law in some states. If the library is small, the storing of the cataloging supplies—cards, ink, pen-

cils, pens, labels, blank forms, etc.—can well be cared for in a small cupboard or in the desks. But if it is large, special lockers or closets with shelving designed to hold supplies should not be neglected, even when there is a general storeroom.

Card Cases and Shelves. In deciding on the location of shelves and card catalog cases in the cataloging room of a new building it will be well to remember that it is more economical of space, and usually more convenient as well, to group either shelves or cases in one part of the room rather than to arrange them around the walls. In any case, the relations of bookshelves, card cases, and catalogers' desks to the natural and artificial light provided should not be neglected. Particular care should always be given to furnishing as nearly as possible overhead lighting for catalog cases. The difficulty in reading the lower lines of a card which is in partial shadow and likewise tilted at an unfavorable angle should be eliminated. The factor of time spent in going from desks to shelves and card cases should receive careful attention. Much unnecessary motion in daily routine can be done away by preliminary planning of a room or series of rooms.

The ordinary course of books through the cataloging and classifying rooms should be carefully plotted in advance; desks, shelving, catalog cases, etc. should be arranged to allow a path as nearly straight and regular as

possible, avoiding returns on itself and crossing of lines. Before accepting the architect's design for such a room (or rooms) flat models of the furniture—cut to scale—should be placed on the drawing (which should show all the mechanical features, such as steam radiators, ducts, pipes, registers, and electric light outlets), and there should be absolute certainty that all the necessary operations can be carried on without crowding or waste motion.

A generous and carefully planned equipment on the physical side promotes convenience, makes for a high class output, and for loyal, efficient service. Careful planning to avoid interference and unnecessary physical effort, to furnish good light, ventilation, and effective tools should result in a satisfied, hard-working, and efficient force, be it large or small.

Reference Books. It is poor economy to skimp on the catalogers' reference books. Even though the necessity for the practice of cataloging in the individual library is on the wane as the result of coöperative effort, the money spent on a catalogers' reference collection, and even on a good deal of duplication in it, is well invested. The amount of time and strength which is often wasted for want of the primary reference books in the catalog room is of itself sufficient reason for devoting funds to their purchase. If that reference collection is a strong one, not only will it become at once a decided help in the way of saving time, strength and energy, but the cata-

loger thoroughly familiar with it becomes thereby a factor of value in all reference work. Particularly is this true of the smaller libraries in which the familiarity with rather recondite works on the part of the catalogers frequently renders them of great aid to readers.[3]

A library devoted to a special subject or interest will of course gather for its catalogers all the available bibliographic material on its specialty.

In planning for the cataloging reference collection and its housing it is well to allow ample room for growth. If there is anything which the last thirty years have made plain, it is that the growth of libraries has far outstripped even generous provision for their equipment. In fact all plans for cataloging work—as indeed for all library work—must have the possibility of extension in view. Even if the relative number of cards made in a

[3] For lists of reference books for cataloging, *cf.* New York State Library. Cataloguer's reference books. Bulletin No. 84, Bibliography No. 36, 1904.

Also *ibid.*, Selection of reference books for the use of cataloguers in finding full names. Bulletin Bibliography No. 5, January, 1898.

Austin, W. H. Report on aids and guides—a summary of bibliographical aids to cataloguers, *Library Journal*, v. 19, Conf. number, p. 77–80.

Vienna. Universität. Katalog der Handbiblioteken des Katalogzimmers und des Lesesales. Wien, Gerold & Cie, 1908.

Peddie, R. A. A list of bibliographical books published since . . . 1893. [In] Transactions of the Bibliographical Society, vol. 10, p. 235–311. London, 1910.

Blanchard, L. R. Some catalogers' reference books of recent years. *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, vol. 11, p. 203–207 (1917).

particular library is to diminish, the actual number prepared is likely to grow greater.

Bibliographies of the future are likely to take card as well as book form. In preparing a catalog room, therefore, ample provision should be made for a large number of card catalog cases *for reference use* in addition to those which must of necessity be placed in the room for the library's own product. At present the cost of the proof-sheets of the Library of Congress cards is so low that every library of any size can afford to purchase, cut, and file either a complete set of these,—or of the printed cards themselves—or else a partial set, to suit its own needs. These will form the best available bibliography for the use not only of the catalogers, but of the library's clientele. There are numerous card bibliographies which can be of the greatest benefit to specialized libraries, and their number is steadily growing.[4]

Plate 3 gives a view of the card repertory in the University of Michigan Library. This is placed in the cataloging room directly under a sky-light. In it are filed a complete depository set of printed cards from the Library of Congress as well as cards printed by the John Crerar Library, the State Library of Prussia, Harvard

[4] Examples of such card bibliographies are the various card indexes published by the Concilium Bibliographicum of Zürich in certain fields of natural science, and the card indexes to insurance cases furnished by certain law publishing firms.

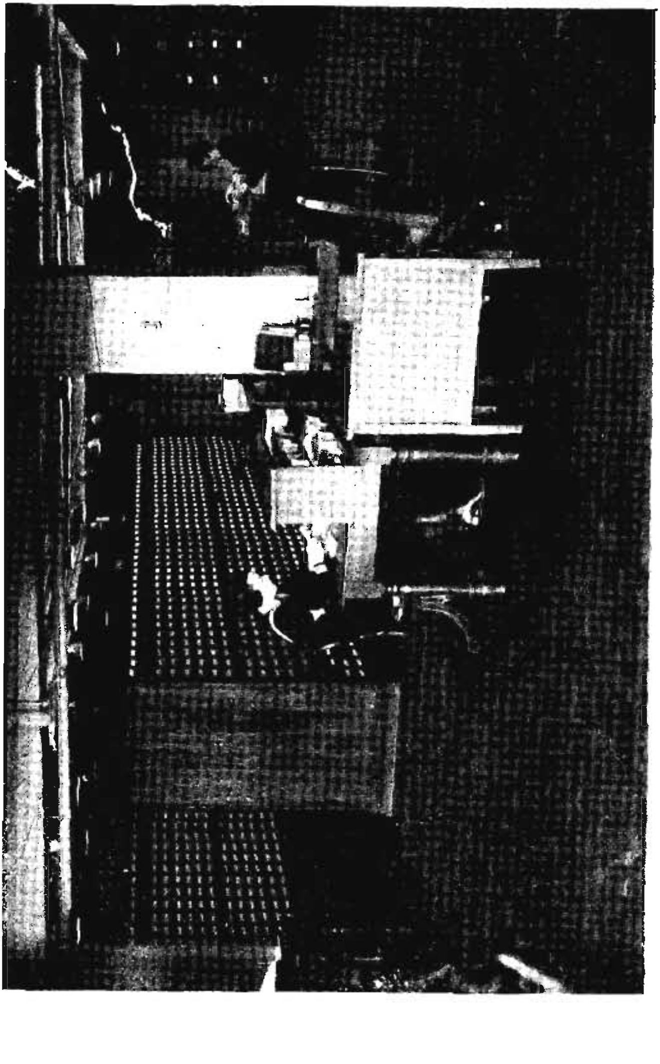
University Library, the University of Chicago Library, and multigraphed cards from various other libraries. In addition the accessions catalog of the British Museum is cut up and each title mounted on a card. Such a repertory forms a great card author-index to books, the most valuable bibliographic tool in current use. It now contains over two million cards.

Ample provision for a greatly increased number of cards as well as of books is therefore a necessity of a modern cataloging room. A great deal of otherwise unused wall and floor space can be put into cheaply finished but well-made metal or wooden card cases. These should be numerous enough to hold several million cards in the larger libraries, and at least a million in smaller ones.

CARDS

Size. The "standard size" card, 7.5 by 12.5 cm., roughly 3 by 5 inches, has come into such universal use in American libraries that practically no provision is any longer made for any other size of card. The smaller card, "index" size, had a considerable vogue for many years, but of late this size card has been discarded by the only libraries of distinction which had clung to it. The printed cards of the Library of Congress, of the John Crerar Library, of the Staat-Bibliothek of Berlin, and of the Concilium Bibliographicum of Zürich are all stand-

PLATE 3



CARD REPERTORY—UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN
General Library

ard size. To this size all standard library card trays and cases conform, and any departure from it is likely to prove very expensive on that account. For ordinary cataloging work, then, the standard size card is without a rival.

Weight and Quality. In the earlier years of the card catalog a very heavy card was generally recommended on the ground that it was best suited to long use in public catalogs. Experience showed that there was no need of this excessive weight, if the quality of the paper was excellent, and a card of more moderate thickness has found favor during the last two decades. The Library of Congress printed cards are of linen rag cardboard of about the same weight as the "medium" weight cards of the best commercial supply houses. A number of libraries whose catalogs are not consulted by great numbers of people have long used a much lighter card of high quality, the so-called "L" weight.

The tests of a card are the cleanness and speed with which it "fingers" in consultation, and the fastness of its color. Card stock of a poor quality generally breaks or frays on the top edge under constant use. Because of this breaking down of the edge the tops of the cards retain dust and the cards frequently stick together. Hence a smooth, hard, and absolutely even top edge is indispensable. Any card which fails under wear at this point is dear, no matter at what cheap price it was bought. Experience proves that a good quality of card

stock must be insisted on. Librarians have learned this thoroughly, and usually lean to the side of too good[5] rather than too poor card stock.

Ruling. In the earlier days of card catalogs the ruling of the card was a matter much discussed. The need of uniformity in manuscript cards to be consulted rapidly was felt to warrant rather rigid insistence on uniform ruling and strictness in matters of indenting and the like. At present, when the bulk of the cards are either printed or typewritten, the ruling is hardly so important, as the alignment and spacing of printed or typewritten cards can readily be made accurate and uniform. Manuscript cards should still be ruled with the top and two side lines in red, as of old. Typewritten cards will do well without any ruled lines at all, if copyists are trained to follow the proper model.[6]

[5] *Cf.* Library of Congress. Annual Report, 1905, p. 147–152, for a detailed discussion of the merits of the medium and light weight cards and for reports of experiments with both.

Various claims are advanced by manufacturers of card stock with regard to their methods of cutting so as to leave an absolutely smooth and even top. Experience seems to point to the use of rotating knives as producing the best results both in the edge and the accuracy of cutting. Of course absolute likeness in size is essential to quick consultation of catalog cards.

Of late years it has been difficult to buy cards of uniformly good quality. The Library of Congress stock has occasionally reflected the disturbed conditions of the paper trade.

[6] On ink and copying ribbons, cf. below, p. 111.

Guide Cards. Guide cards to aid the reader in finding his place in a catalog tray are usually made of bristol board. They are somewhat higher than the other cards in the tray, and as a rule the projecting surface is but a third (or less) of the width of the card. Guide cards can now be bought with the legends printed and protected by celluloid. There are numerous other devices to strengthen the guide card and to prevent its wearing out. As a rule none of these are very satisfactory. In the nature of things guide cards must wear out quickly, and they should be renewed frequently as a part of routine work and expense. They are seldom too numerous. In fact, there are seldom enough of them in large catalogs.

In addition to the ordinary guide cards to aid in finding a given caption, it is highly desirable to insert explanatory guide cards before all complicated entries. If a subject is subdivided, the guide card should list the subdivisions; if an author entry requires explanation or elaboration, a guide card before the first author card gives the needed information. These may well be of a different color from the ordinary bristol guide-cards. It is of course important that the legends should be brief, as they are practically sign-boards. Many such guides could be printed in advance and used (with different headings) for a variety of purposes. The various sub-

divisions employed under countries and the subheads used in subject catalogs under authors are examples.

Many libraries have of recent years placed in their card catalogs guide cards bearing printed directions as to the use of the catalog. These are now sold by library supply houses, and may even be bought with celluloid protection. Other libraries print such guides—usually of a distinctive color—to fit their own needs. The practice has much to commend it.[7]

[7] Instruction in the use of the card catalog. *Library Journal*, Dec., 1916, vol. 41, p. 535, a brief note describing the card designed by C. R. Green for the Library of the Massachusetts Agricultural College.

CHAPTER III

Planning the Catalog

NUMBER AND KINDS OF CATALOGS

Before entering on the actual work of cataloging it is necessary to determine in advance the number and kinds of catalogs to be maintained.[1] Librarians have frequently failed to realize that in their routine processes they in effect make and keep up several sorts of catalogs. The kinds most commonly in use are: (1) a catalog of accessions, (2) a catalog of classes of books (shelf-list), (3) a catalog of authors, (4) a catalog of subjects, (5) a catalog of titles. There may be in addition numerous duplications of parts of any of these five. The number generally includes catalogs primarily for the use of the catalogers ("official" catalog), or for the order department, and a catalog (or catalogs) for readers—the public catalog. It is obvious that if these are to differ in form, their number must become a very serious consideration. If, however, the same entry (card) can be used in all or most of them, and if it can be made once and duplicated *ad libitum*, the question of the number of catalogs maintained is much less serious.[2] It then becomes a matter

[1] Coolidge, A. C. The objects of cataloging. *Library Journal*, Sept. 15, 1921, vol. 45, p. 735–739.

[2] In the Library of Congress there are over 100 card catalogs, large and small—all made of printed cards. In most of our large libraries the card catalogs are numerous.

of the expense of duplicating, of filing and of cases. Obviously also an adjustment of the various processes of preparing the record of a book in the library may be devised which will enable the initial record to be duplicated cheaply and to be used in as many ways as are desirable. The economy effected by the single device of using the same form of entry for a given book throughout the institution, and having that entry determined once and for all early in the process is only to be understood by those who have encountered by vexatious delays and difficulties caused by varying records in different departments for a book of doubtful origin. Why an accession clerk, a shelf-lister, a cataloger, and a classifier —not to mention others—should in turn have to worry himself, and others, over the proper form of intricate or difficult entries (as they too frequently do) is one of the mysteries of bad management.[3]

The adoption, then, of the principle of the "unit" card and uniform rules of entry for various records will resolve in great measure the difficulties experienced in keeping several catalogs. It should not be forgotten, however, whatever the number of catalogs determined on, that there are involved in the carrying out of this principle (1) some cheap mechanical process of duplicating cards, or the possibility of purchasing them at a moderate cost, and (2) certain definite future expense for cases, floorspace and filing. Libraries are sure to

[3] *Cf. infra.* p. 59, 86.

grow year by year. Reference libraries wear out few books. The cost of future records in both space and money must be carefully counted.[4]

Official Catalog. There is one practical question which deserves attention at this point. Shall a small library keep an "official" catalog, that is, a catalog placed in the catalog room for the use of the catalogers and classifiers? Of course, if the library is very small, and is unlikely to grow large, especially if there be but one or two workers, an official catalog is a bit of foolish extravagance. A library of fifty thousand volumes will perhaps hardly need one. But if the library be part of an institution of learning, of research, whether purely practical or theoretical, *if it is to have a continuous existence and growth,* an official catalog had better be started early —even when it may seem an absurdity. The time saved to the cataloging force, the helpful aid to continuity and consistency which the opportunity to insert all sorts of catalogers' notes and directions affords, the comparatively trifling expense of maintenance, all point in the direction of establishing such an office record. In a large library there can be no possible question that an official catalog saves time and money, insures uniformity of treatment, and is the means of avoiding much serious trouble. Incidentally also the fact that it saves catalogers from continual consultation and even occasional

[4] *Cf.* my articles in *Library Journal,* v. 30, p. 10–14, and v. 31, p. 270–271, on "The cost of cataloging," and "The number of catalog cards to a book."

monopolization of the public catalog is an item of no small moment. Everyone has seen public catalogs thronged by catalogers busy at their work to the point of interfering seriously with the convenience of readers. When there is no official catalog this interference may, and probably will, become a charge against the administration of the library, to say nothing of the waste of the cataloger's time in going from the cataloging room to the public catalog.

Full or Short Catalogs. In the days when all the cards for the various catalogs were made by one cataloger there was much discussion of full entries and of short and simple entries. The question is still occasionally raised, especially in libraries chiefly devoted to the circulation of popular books, and may well be studied by all catalogers. The decision of the American Library Association committee to leave the cataloger no liberty as regards the title-page has never commended itself to many students of cataloging practice. In fact, the fine art of cataloging lies in large part in the proper abridgment of the title. Whether the full details of collation are desirable for every library is likewise a matter of doubt. No librarian, as some have mistakenly thought, is barred from making a decision on these matters by the fact that he buys and uses printed cards in his catalog. On the contrary, he may, and indeed must, decide how far the needs of his particular institution demand the complete bibliographic description of a book, and what elements he may with safety omit. Of course he can not

use printed cards successfully in his catalog if he does not ordinarily make his "main entries" according to code. Other matters he may determine for himself without undue contrast.

While these questions are discussed in some detail in a later chapter,[5] it may be well to remark here that the date and place of publication and the publisher's name are not wisely omitted in any library frequented by specialists in any field. Neither are the notes of illustrations, maps, and plans, nor the number of pages and volumes. These are all items of moment to one selecting a book from a catalog. The needs of his readers will necessarily govern the librarian's decision. The best principle to follow is to err on the side of fullness, *if the library is to grow.* Information which easily differentiates somewhat similar books or editions in a small collection will often be wholly insufficient in a large library. The much-vexed matter of full names is a case in point. In a library of, say, fifty to one hundred thousand volumes which consists largely of the writings of contemporary authors there will not be any great confusion arising from identical or apparently identical names. But in a library which has passed—or will pass—that figure, there will constantly come up cases of the same surname, the same ordinarily used given name, or the same initials. Differentiation is obviously needed. In the full name of each writer is ordinarily sought and

[5] *Cf.* p. 82 ff.

found without the uncomfortable expedients of dates and epithets, definitions and "*floruits.*" Insistence on full names, which so often seems pedantry and which so easily excites the cheap wit of the captious critic, is in reality the fruit of bitter experience. How much greater would be the ire of the man who now rails at the meticulousness of catalogers, if he should find no adequate distinction in the catalog of a large library between the array of men who have rejoiced in the names of John Smith or Wilhelm Müller, other than attempted dates or designations. Here is where the three and four Christian names do yeoman service in the cause of accuracy.

In arriving at a decision, therefore, the probable future development of the collection must be the guiding consideration. On the other hand it must not be forgotten that a decision to be "full" may involve expense which may be needless and which must be incurred with every book and pamphlet cataloged. Experience has shown that a mean between very full and very short catalogs is only attainable with intelligent direction and good, well-trained catalogers. A changing force working on a large collection can not be held to this mean with success.[6]

[6] *Cf.* Pettee, Julia. Graded catalogs. *Library Journal*, March, 1915, vol. 40, p. 178–179. A good-humored but keen discussion of the problems of "full" and "simple" cataloging.

Cf. also Van Hoesen, H. B. Bibliographical catalog and short-title catalog. *Proceedings* of the American Library Institute, 1921. Summarized in *Library Journal*, May 15, 1921, vol. 46, p. 466.

The amount of time consumed in noting the details of collation is generally held to be a more serious argument against the full catalog than any supposed lack of demand for the information when supplied. But it is very doubtful whether this objection is valid under modern conditions. The time and labor spent in determining the proper form of entries, both author and subject (frequently from a lengthy and minute consultation of authorities), are usually far in excess of that needed for setting down the other details, since these last are almost always to be obtained from the book itself. If, now, the American Library Association code be followed, and if in addition there is kept a file of Library of Congress cards or cut proofsheets, the proper form of entry for puzzling books is ordinarily determined very rapidly; even when there is no printed card for the book in hand, there are frequently cards for other works of the same author. Some favorite local hobbies of entry must of course be abandoned in following the Library of Congress form of entry. But the time thus set free for work on other features, i.e., added entries (including subjects), collation, and notes, makes possible a good grade of "home-made" card which would have been impractical because of pressure of work in very many libraries a decade since.

FORMS OF CATALOGS

Dictionary Catalog. There are three forms of catalogs for the public in use in American libraries, the

dictionary catalog, the class catalog, and the alphabetic-classed catalog. In the dictionary catalog, which is the form in use in an overwhelming majority of libraries, author, title, and subject entries are arranged in one alphabet, exactly as are the words in an ordinary dictionary. Further, with a very few exceptions, the sub-arrangement is strictly alphabetical. Theoretically this arrangement on a strictly alphabetical basis is simple and easily understood. It is claimed that even the tyro can use a dictionary card catalog with both ease and success. This is undoubtedly true in the smaller libraries. Even in the larger ones, in which intricate author and subject entries, as well as extremely large numbers of cards under certain headings, present obstacles to the successful working of the principle of alphabetic arrangement, this principle is, nevertheless, on the whole the most successful yet invented. There is an immense advantage in the collocation of author and subject when these happen to be the same, as in such a heading as Dante, or any other man of letters. There is great convenience, too, in finding the publications of any corporate body, as for example, the city of New York, in juxtaposition with works about that particular body or locality. It is too much, however, to expect that because the dictionary form of arrangement is comparatively simple that it will of itself be intelligible to untrained persons. Even in the smallest libraries it is well to supplement the catalog with every device to render it self-interpreting, not omitting such elementary aids as plenty of guide-cards, labels,

and notes explanatory of arrangement. In large libraries some personal assistance must almost necessarily be rendered to readers desirous of ferreting out obscure and hidden items. If a separate room is provided for the public catalog, there will have to be attendants. It is evident that they must be versed not only in the rules of cataloging and of filing, but also in the use of printed bibliographies and catalogs as substitutes and helps to the card catalog. It is useful to have certain members of the cataloging staff detailed to serve as attendants in the catalog room, both because of their familiarity with the making of catalogs, and for the reflex effect on their work in cataloging.

Most American libraries follow Mr. Cutter's rules for the arrangement of a dictionary catalog found in the fourth edition of his *Rules*, p. 111–129.[7]

Classed Catalog. The classed catalog, or *"catalogue raisonné"* as it was termed in the earlier works, is less frequently met with in American libraries. Most libraries, however, prepare a shelf-list, which is substan-

[7] On the dictionary catalog, *cf.* the papers by Barrett and Pollard, Second International Conference of Librarians, London, 1897, pp. 67 and 63 respectively; W. E. Doubleday, Class lists or dictionary catalogs. *Library*, 9: 179; Charles A. Cutter, Why and how a dictionary catalog is made. *Library Journal*, 15: 143; E. W. Hulme, Principles of dictionary subject cataloging in scientific and technical libraries. *Library Association Record*, 2: 551, 571, 668; A. B. Kroeger, Dictionary catalogs *versus* bibliographies, *Library Journal*, 27: Conf. 180. Lillie, Wm. Merits of the classified and dictionary catalogues. *Library World*, vol. 17, p. 97–102.

tially the same thing as a classed catalog. The shelf-list does not ordinarily contain the cross-references which will be found in a good classed catalog, although such additional entries would strengthen a shelf-list which was designed only for the use of the classifiers. There has never been any very strong reason for the failure of most libraries to duplicate their shelf-lists for the benefit of the public, or at least to make them as fully accessible as the other card catalogs. With the advent of the printed cards such duplication is not only possible at a moderate cost, but from every point of view highly desirable.

A classed catalog will show at a glance exactly what books are grouped on the shelves under any topic or subdivision of a topic. It is necessarily arranged in the exact order of the library's classification. When there are numerous divisions in the collections, as the seminar and laboratory libraries in our large universities, or the branches of a large public library, the classed catalog will reveal more fully and accurately the library's real strength on any one topic than will an examination of the shelves. A "union shelf-list," which is practically a classified catalog, becomes a vitally important tool under such conditions.

There are certain advantages of a technical sort in the classed catalog. The classification has to be done anyhow, and the preparation of a subject catalog arranged by classes is but a slight additional burden on the classifying force. To one familiar with the scheme of arrangement

adopted it affords a means for an easy survey of a comparatively wide field, as he finds the various allied topics in close proximity and not scattered throughout the alphabet according to the accidents of terminology.

From the practical point of view of the librarian who must make a decision between the alphabetic principle of setting forth the contents of his books and the logical arrangement of titles it makes but little difference which form is chosen. It is absolutely necessary to supplement any classed catalog of subjects with an alphabetical index, unless all the persons who consult the catalog are versed in the niceties of classification. It is likewise almost as essential to set out before investigators a detailed scheme of the arrangement of books in the library and the actual titles under the several heads. In other words, if the classed catalog is made the basis for the subject index of the library's contents, there must be an alphabetic key to the system; while a merely aphabetic index gives no adequate notion of the contents of the library in closely related fields. Practically, then, an author and subject catalog arranged alphabetically, plus a duplication of the shelf-list for public use, gives the most effective clue to the contents of the library. That is, a dictionary catalog requires supplementing by class lists, a classed catalog by an alphabetical index of subjects.

Just what form the classed catalog which is to be used to supplement the ordinary dictionary catalog shall take is a matter to be determined by each library adopting it

in accordance with its particular problems. Perhaps small sections of the classed catalog scattered through the library, in the immediate vicinity of the books listed, for the convenience of persons having direct access to the books, such as class lists of special collections, may prove useful. Small book finding-lists in classed form with alphabetic index are a most convenient device, though they involve a departure from the card principle. The so-called "title-a-line" classed lists which have been issued by the Princeton University Library in book form offer a unique solution of the problem of combining compactness, freshness, and low cost. In libraries which are not too large, it is possible to combine card shelf or class lists of the various subjects with each group of reference books in the reference room. Thus a reader having at hand a selection of the library's best and most recent treatises on a given subject may find also a complete list of what the library has on its shelves on the same topics. In this way the half dozen books which do duty in the reference collection may have as a support a list of some hundreds which the reader may call for. This scheme demands the planning of a reference room so that card trays may be furnished in immediate proximity to each set of shelves.[8]

[8] *Cf.* H. Bond. Classified vs. dictionary catalogues, *Library Association Record,* 2: 313–318; A. W. Pollard. Meditations on directories: alphabetical and classed cataloguing, *The Library* (New Series) 2: 82–90; J. H. Quinn. Dictionary vs. classified catalogues for Public Libraries—The classified catalogue, *Library Association Record,* 3: 514–520; W. I. Fletcher, Future of the catalog, *Library Journal,* 30: 141–4.

Alphabetic-classed Catalog. In addition to the strictly classified catalog which follows in detail the notation of the classification in use in the library there is sometimes employed an alphabetical arrangement of titles under the headings of large classes of books. This method has the advantage of not being subject to change in arrangement with the development of the classification and the consequent inevitable change of notation, while it still retains the advantage of the systematic arrangement. It is the true "*catalogue raisonné*" disposed in alphabetical order. The use of inversion keeps related subjects together, while the call numbers appearing in the customary place are an indication of the location of the books and not a guide to the arrangement of the catalog. In such a catalog Botany is found (with a variety of sub-headings) under the letter B, while Zoölogy comes under Z, and both headings may contain cards for books which are located in parts of the library's collections removed from either class. Such an arrangement differs from that of the ordinary dictionary catalog chiefly in that it generally includes under each main head a larger variety of sub-heads, i.e., it is a grouping of titles by class, rather than by specific subject. Such an alphabetical classed catalog does not, of course, require an index as a strictly classed catalog does, nor does it involve so much movement in consultation as a strictly dictionary catalog. It is best adapted to small collections. In a large library the subjects become so unwieldy that even minute and very specific headings

come to have an unduly large number of cards under each, whether those headings be treated as divisions of the classification or as separate subject entries. The alphabetically arranged classified catalog is not, therefore, much in favor in progressive library circles for large collections.

Arrangement. Before leaving this topic, it may be remarked that the dictionary catalog principle of specific headings may be followed successfully without filing the author, title, and subject cards in one alphabet. If it appears desirable to keep an author record separate from the subject record, it may be done without any departure from the basic principle of the dictionary catalog. In some institutions, in which the catalog is consulted very much more often to discover whether a certain book is in the library than to find what the library has on a particular topic, there is no small practical convenience in keeping the two apart. In that case it is perhaps well to keep biographical and critical works in the author catalog under the name of the subject, as is done in the British Museum Catalogue, or to insert them in the title catalog, if a separate catalog of titles is maintained.[9]

[9] It is common observation of reference librarians in university libraries that professors and advanced students seldom consult the subject cards in the catalogs. On the other hand they consult the author cards continually. But younger students regularly consult the catalog for subjects.

DECISION

The majority of American libraries have card catalogs on the dictionary plan of arrangement. It is probably the cheapest form to make and to file, especially with the aid of the purchased printed card. The average reader undoubtedly finds his book in the dictionary catalog more easily than in any other kind. The dictionary form, then, may be taken as the norm for libraries of general interest.

This being granted, it becomes the librarian's duty to supplement the general catalog in every way possible within his means, either by lists of certain classes, selected lists of the best books on certain topics, or complete class-lists. The Library of Congress has a dictionary catalog, and supplements it by numerous select lists on special topics, and by bibliographies showing completely its resources in certain fields. Its shelf-lists will also ultimately be available to the public. Further, there are kept in this library, as in some others, aphabetically arranged lists of the books shelved on each floor of the stacks, or in each of the main divisions of the classification system. Thus an investigator—or an attendant—admitted to the shelves has not only the books disposed in logical order, but an alphabetical list of all the titles in that class or on that floor of the book-stacks.[10] The John Crerar Library has a classed catalog,

[10] *Cf.* Clapp, C. B. The group-index; or catalog at the shelves. *Library Journal,* June, 1914, vol. 39, p. 431–435.

and has published some very valuable lists showing its resources in particular fields, as Bibliographies of special subjects, Encyclopaedias, History of Sciences, etc.

When the resources of the library do not permit publication in book form, they generally allow either duplication of card shelf-lists, or direct access to them. At all events, almost any library can now afford to make by means of (printed) cards select lists on topics of particular interest in its own community. Whether these lists are arranged by classes or not is a matter of comparative indifference.

Whatever decision is reached, the cost of keeping up the main catalog and its supplements must always be in mind. This cost, as was said in the beginning of this chapter, it not alone that of manufacture—it includes space, filing, and maintenance. To make fully available whatever work is done is as important as to undertake new projects.

CHAPTER IV

Organization of the Cataloging Force[1]

The organization of the cataloging force will naturally vary with the number of catalogers, the character of the library, the degree of minuteness of the work, etc. Even when the force is very small, it is well to have definite responsibilities for each member, and a careful division of the work. Certain classes of decisions—and all cataloging work, aside from mere duplicating, consists of decisions—should be left to the librarian in a small library. For example, whenever the rules prescribe the following of the "best known form" of name, or give similar doubtful directions the decision should be put up to the head librarian, if for no other reason, that he may not be ignorant of the library's practice in dubious matters. In larger libraries he will not, in all probability, have time to devote to such details, but will transfer the responsibility to the head cataloger.

Head Cataloger. Whenever there are two or more catalogers, one must be given the place of authority. As soon as the force increases to half a dozen or more, definite subdivision of the work and consequent organization will be essential. The head cataloger must

[1] *Cf.* Sears, M. E. The organization of a cataloging department. *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, vol. 11, p. 207–211 (1917).

necessarily lay out the work for his force, revise some portions of it, and maintain a close general supervision. It will be found possible, by the use of the Library of Congress printed cards as authority in matters of entry, to diminish much of the work done of old by head catalogers in determining author entries. Any reliable cataloger can ascertain the form already adopted in conformity with the American Library Association rules in the Library of Congress catalog, and can indicate it for the rest of the force by checking the title page. This will dispose of a very large portion of the work of deciding on main entries, and will enable the head cataloger to use the time thus freed for careful revision of the work of his subordinates, particularly in the field of subject cataloging where experience and knowledge count for so much. It should be the rule of the library that *every* subject heading should be passed on finally by the head cataloger, or his chief assistant. Another very common rule is that all work when completed shall come to him for final inspection.

Revision. Revision of preliminary work should be rigidly insisted on, and revision of all copying work must necessarily be a part of cataloging routine.[2] No card

[2] It is this necessity for revision of the copying which consumes so much time and strength that has led to various efforts to have cataloging done directly on the multigraph, linotype, or some other machine which can be at once applied to duplication, with but one revision, i.e., the reading of one proof. Certain persons have thought it possible to go farther and eliminate all copying and consequent revision by using

should go into the catalog which has not been scrutinized by another than the person who made it. This rule should apply to any cards made by the head cataloger as well as to those of his subordinates. Indeed, the better the chief, the more likely is his semi-clerical work to stand in need of scanning by another. He may have lost his skill in tithing the mint, anise and cummin of necessary minutiae in the effort to manage a force almost always insufficient for the work and to get proper headings for all his books.

Assignment and Specializing. Cataloging calls for a service of varying degrees of knowledge. Much of the work is clerical—some of it is even manual, as the pasting on of labels. At the other end of the scale is the need for linguistic ability, bibliographic training, competent judgment on recondite subjects. An improper organization of the force will compel the man who uses half a dozen languages and knows the literature of as many subjects to do the work of a typewriter or a mere clerk,

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some form of photographic process to reproduce on a standard size sensitized plate an impression from which printing can be done. Another possibility may perhaps lie in the direction of photographing a title page directly on a sensitized paper of proper size and thickness which can be used as a catalog card. However, these attractive schemes have not as yet been reduced to practicality, although the multigraph and similar forms of inexpensive typesetting and duplicating machinery effect a great saving in comparatively simple cataloging work, and may well be introduced in libraries having any considerable amount of direct and simple cataloging. When once the element of time in preparation becomes of more moment than time in reproduction, the value of such machines diminishes.

or on the other hand will permit a recent high school graduate to decide the subject entry for the latest physical chemistry or treatise on elliptic functions. Good cataloging costs money. Cheap cataloging is always expensive in the end. The librarian and the head cataloger between them must therefore fit the force to the work so as to use skilled labor to the best advantage, and not to waste it.[3]

It is impossible to lay down fixed rules for the details of organization of a department which must necessarily vary with each institution and its needs. If the principles noted above, definite responsibility, careful assignment of duties, and unceasing revision are followed, the work can not well go wrong.[4]

Statistics. Reports of the total work done in each cataloging force should be required by the library management. These can best be compiled from the reports of the individual catalogers to their immediate chief. As a rule these are made on blank forms of the size of a standard card.

The minimum on which reports should be required seems to be: (1) number of main entry cards; (2) number of added entries indicated or made; (3) number of "analyticals" and cards involved; (4) number of former entries investigated; (5) amount of revision. Some

[3] *Cf.* Bay, J. C. Inspiration through cataloging. *Library Journal,* Aug., 1916, vol. 41, p. 547–551.

[4] Pettee, Julia. Wanted—catalogers. *Library Journal,* June 15, 1921, vol. 46, p. 543–545.

libraries will require much fuller statistics, particularly if they maintain many separate departments or branches. Catalogers can keep the account day by day and hand in the reports as desired, either weekly or monthly.

It is manifestly unfair to the catalogers, as most of our libraries go, to make these reports the basis of comparison between individuals. The work is never of the same difficulty, the same duration, the same amount. No one sits at a desk day by day, hour by hour, turning out catalog cards. The very nature of the work demands a great variety of study and time on different books. One book may prove a problem which requires hours of investigation, comparison of authorities, balanced judgment, consultation of numerous precedents in the library's practice. For another book equally difficult of decision the Library of Congress card file may give the proper form with but a moment's labor. In any library, catalogers having special equipment may be called on—and should be—to aid in reference work. Moreover, the person assigning work can directly influence the record of the individual cataloger by the nature of that assignment. The time expended in the revision of the work of a careless colleague will of course cause the reviser's output to dwindle. The reports are decidedly valuable in recording the *sum of the work done*, in estimating the probable capacity of the office. They are seldom, even when taken for long periods, a true reflec-

tion of the cataloging ability of the various members of the force.[5]

Budget. The portion of the income of the library which may properly be devoted to the work of cataloging is primarily a matter of general administration. At this point, it may, however, be remarked that the quality of the cataloging work, as well as its quantity, demands consideration. Poorly paid catalogers produce catalogs badly made, badly revised, incomplete and inconsistent. The work of every user of the library is rendered less effective as a consequence, and the reputation of the institution deservedly suffers. The time of the higher salaried employees is frequently all but consumed in an effort to atone for and revise errors and blunders. A catalog department must of course be so organized as to make every use of modern coöperative methods, of mechanical duplication, of time- and labor-saving devices. The head and his aids must discriminate between needless refinements of collation and notes and the essential elements in the description of a book. Even so, the cost will be heavy, and there is always a tendency—more

[5] For example, I recall that six books in an unknown tongue once fell to my lot to catalog. There was on the title pages absolutely no clue to the language. The imprint was finally discovered to be Copenhagen. By a process of elimination lasting several hours, it was at length decided that they must be in some American language. They proved to be books in Eskimo printed by the Danish missionaries to Greenland in the late eighteenth century, but it took the spare time of several days and much consultation of dictionaries of the modern Alaskan Innuit to arrive at an approximation to a translation of the title pages and the consequent classification and cataloging.

How many English or American novels could have been done in

pronounced in these days of library extension—to cut the cataloging cost at the expense of ultimate efficiency. If the various processes of preparing a book for the shelves are so ordered and correlated that entry is determined at the beginning, description once made is mechanically repeated in other records, the apparent cost will produce a real saving. In other words, determination of entry should precede accessioning, shelf-listing, classifying, binding. The simplifying of those processes which will result is much greater than would be supposed by those who have followed each in turn separately from the others. When the question, "How shall this book be entered?" is decided, much of the mental effort now given to the making of various records disappears, to say nothing of the practical value in shortening labor of the notes, series entries, references, included on the card or added to the title page.[6]

[6] On the cost of cataloging see my articles (previously cited) in *Library Journal*, v. 30, p. 10–14, v. 31, p. 270–271, in which it is shown that cataloging costs can be figured in time and results, but hardly in money, as not only do salaries vary, but the kinds of work other than cataloging, strictly so-called, done by the various employees vary greatly in different institutions.

The investigation into cataloging costs carried on in 1913–14 by a committee of the American Library Association had few definite results. The complexity of the problem was well brought out by the Committee Reports. (*A. L. A. Bulletin*, v. 7 (1913) p. 239–241; vol. 8 (1914) p. 182–184. *Library Journal*, vol. 39, p. 598–599 (Aug., 1914)). On the tests taken under the committee's direction, *Cf.* Josephson, A. G. S., *Library Journal*, vol. 41, p. 654–656 (Sept., 1916); Hanson, J. C. M., *Library Journal*, vol. 40, p. 399–400 (June, 1915). Also the reports from Grand Rapids, *Library Journal*, vol. 39, p. 728 (Sept., 1914); and from Yale and Columbia, *Library Journal*, vol. 41, p. 110–112 (Feb., 1917), and vol. 41, p. 344 (April, 1917).

Cataloging is in a transition period at the present time. The proportion of the total income needed for this work is certainly in excess of what it will be when all cards can be got when the books are bought. In the meantime it is foolish to cut appropriations severely for the sake of entering more attractive fields.[7]

QUALIFICATIONS

Accuracy. The conditions under which cataloging work must be done vary to such a degree that it is almost impossible to lay down even minimum requirements. Even more difficult is it to divine from standards set up and from recommendations of candidates the one underlying and essential characteristic—accuracy. No amount of training and no extent of study can make a person of an habitually inaccurate turn of mind a good cataloger. Accuracy in transcribing, in compiling notes of authorities, in copying, in everything, in short, is the *sine qua non* of success. Accuracy or its reverse are more truly matters of habit and disposition than of training. An accurate and exact temperament is more to be sought for in prospective catalogers than any other one thing.

Certain minimum requirements almost go without saying. For even the minor positions at least a high school education plus some sort of training is necessarily

[7] *Cf.* "The catalog situation." *Library Journal*, Aug., 1921; vol. 46, p. 645–646.

demanded. As one goes up in the scale of positions, the requirements naturally rise. Competent catalogers in libraries of the scholarly type must have had college training and in addition either a good library school course or careful instruction in a good library. The higher work—particularly that of revision—demands a man or woman of scholarly attainments, knowledge of several languages, and more than a modicum of both training and experience.

Linguistic Ability is more than ever needed. In these days of rapid growth of libraries even the public libraries maintained by the cities contain numerous books in German and French, and many have large numbers both in the ancient languages and in those of eastern and southern Europe. The number of books in languages other than English is almost certain to increase. A cataloger who can be used only on plain work in English is sure to become less useful as the years go on.

At present such catalogers, if they profit by experience, will doubtless continue in their work because of the value of this very experience. But persons expecting to enter on cataloging work should acquire a good reading knowledge of French and German as a minimum, and will do well to add to it as much as they can learn of other languages.

General Information. To linguistic ability one may add that baffling qualification—general information. This is supposed to be evidenced by the number of years that have been spent in school or college. As a matter

of fact the length of time thus spent is no indication whatever of the mental attitude of a candidate. Some experience of the world of people as distinct from that of books is no mean help in cataloging books—for people. A librarian seeking a new cataloger will do very well to ask about the attitude of the various candidates toward people and things—about general information and *savoir faire*. Naturally he must ask people who know. Consequently he can not ask the candidates. Some of their "references" will generally, however, be in a position to give a discriminating opinion.

"Book-sense." Another quality which defies definition and is equally hard to discover in advance may be termed "book-sense." To some people "books are books"—and nothing more. Bookishness is generally offensive in itself and of very little aid in cataloging or reference work. But "book-sense," if the term may be allowed, is something very different from bookishness. It is an ability to move quickly and easily among printed things with an instinctive appreciation of values. It comes to people who have lived with books from childhood but who have never regarded them as an end in themselves. A man or woman without "book-sense" is utterly out of place in a library. Some people never get it—they had best go to selling groceries or pounding typewriters. This quality must be sought for—but there is no way of putting it into application blanks. Again resort must be had to the discriminating person who knows the candidate.

Library Schools. This leads naturally to mention of the work of the library schools. Librarians are looking more and more to these institutions for trained assistants, particularly in cataloging. They do not, however, all teach cataloging equally well. There is a great difference in the theory that is taught, the amount of practice work done, and in the quality of the instruction in cataloging. Much more varied is the work of apprentice and training classes, which seldom go beyond the mere mechanical rudiments of cataloging. It will not do to take the mere fact of some assertion of professional training without scrutiny—at least in the somewhat unformed condition of our present means for affording training in librarianship.[8]

The whole matter, then, of qualifications for catalogers resolves itself into two elements—the qualifications which can be put on paper by an applicant and those which can not. There will be a certain minimum of the first which must be required of all candidates, rising with the complexity of the work and the nature of the library. The qualifications of the second class must be ascertained by report of trusted persons or by observation. A probationary period for newly appointed assistants would seem, therefore, an essential part of a library's organization.

[8] *Cf.* Mann, Margaret. Teaching cataloging. *Library Journal,* Nov. 15, 1921; vol. 46, p. 929–933.

SALARIES

What salaries can good catalogers command? This is wholly a relative matter—not one to which a positive answer can be given. The varying cost of living in different sections, the general divergencies between salaries in city and country come in to prevent definiteness. If the library has a scheme of classification of its service which provides for promotion from one grade to another with satisfactory service of a given length, the catalogers will not come low in the scale. The value of successful experience will of course be recognized in such a scheme, in addition to preliminary training. There will be junior and senior catalogers, and assistants of various grades. At present, so far as can be learned from somewhat extensive inquiry, heads of catalog departments receive salaries varying from $2000 to $4000 in different types and grades of libraries. Senior catalogers with good training and long experience range from $1800 to $3000, while juniors receive from $900 to $1600. The variety in work, institutions, scale of salaries and of living is thus evident. Few institutions of any considerable size pay the smallest sums quoted, and equally few the largest. The average is probably about $2500 for head of the catalog work, $1800 for senior catalogers, and $1100 for junior catalogers.

HOURS

Seven hours daily is usually regarded as the maximum of successful cataloging work. Beyond that amount come in eye-strain, physical fatigue, loss of judgment to hinder a satisfactory output. The quality of the work suffers severely, if a longer day is attempted. Indeed it is such a well known fact of psychology that accuracy and judgment fail with fatigue that many librarians deliberately vary the cataloger's work. In some libraries the change comes in substituting another sort of work for a portion of each day. In others the variety is attained by transferring catalogers to other departments for a portion of each year. It is highly advisable that a certain amount of service in reference work be given catalogers wherever it is practical. The reaction on the cataloging work is generally very helpful.

CHAPTER V

The Use of Printed Catalog Cards

The Two Kinds of Modern Cataloging Practice. Catalogs were formerly made by each institution for itself. Today over 60 per cent of the cards needed for an American university library, and fully 90 per cent of those for typical public libraries can be purchased and adapted to the needs of the individual library. The methods of this adaptation are discussed in this chapter. Each year the percentage of cards available grows—perhaps in another decade the need for making more than a small number of cards will have passed with the development of the various agencies for manufacturing card entries for both new and old books.

The need at present for skill in cataloging in the library is still so great that Chapter VI is devoted to a consideration of some of the guiding principles of that work. In a comparatively short time, however, much of the time and money now necessarily given to cataloging can be freed to a large extent by the purchase of cards for each book added to the library's collections.

Catalog Rules. The use of printed cards from a central source of course implies the adoption of identical rules of cataloging. The American Library Association therefore in 1900 appointed a committee on cataloging rules which worked for several years at this

problem, joining finally with a similar committee of the Library Association of the United Kingdom in issuing "Catalog rules: author and title entries. Boston, 1908."[1] This code is largely followed in American libraries, and as the basis for the preparation of the Library of Congress printed cards has been generally adopted by libraries engaged in making new catalogs or remodeling old ones. It is of course possible for a library which has not adopted the code of 1908 to use the printed cards to some extent without engaging in extensive alterations or changes of old entries. The fullest benefit, however, can only be gained by following the same rules in purchased and "home-made" entries.

If an international agreement of wider scope is ever reached, it will probably not be necessary to make very extensive changes in existing catalogs, just because the printed cards have purposely been made with sufficient space between the top and the heading to permit the writing in of different forms of entry.

Cards. The standard size card, approximately 5 by 3 inches (12.5 x 7.5 cm.) is now used exclusively. Odd sizes (which seem to have an irresistible fascination for the amateur) are in catalogs a positive harm, as they prevent the adoption of printed cards for use in the same catalog. The thinner cards are now much more used than formerly. Cheap card stock does not hold

[1] This code has been reprinted several times. It has not been altered materially since its issue in 1908. It is now issued by the American Library Association, John Crerar Library Building, Chicago.

PLATE 4

Scherer, Edmond Henri Adolphe, 1815-1889.

Essays on English literature, by Edmond Scherer; tr. by George Saintsbury. New York, C. Scribner's sons, 1891.

xl, 309 p. front. (port.) $18\frac{1}{2}^{cm}$.

Selected from the author's "Études sur la littérature contemporaine" and placed in the order in which they occur in those volumes.

CONTENTS.—Introduction.—George Eliot—"Silas Marner."—John Stuart Mill.—Shakespeare.—George Eliot—"Daniel Deronda."—Taine's History of English literature.—Shakespeare and criticism.—Milton and "Paradise lost."—Laurence Sterne, or the humorist.—Wordsworth.—Thomas Carlyle.—"Endymion."—George Eliot.

1. English literature—Hist. & crit. I. Saintsbury, George Edward Bateman, 1845- tr. II. Title.

11-19013

Library of Congress PR99.S4

A TYPICAL LIBRARY OF CONGRESS CARD

its color well nor take a lasting ink with good results and moreover it is likely to break on top and to be cut unevenly; it is therefore advisable to use high grade linen cardboard. The Library of Congress cards are of medium thickness and ordinarily of excellent white stock, to which it is desirable that the other cards in the catalog should conform as nearly as possible.

PRINTED CARDS FROM THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

In planning to make as full use as possible of the printed cards from the Library of Congress the beginner will find it indispensable to study thoroughly the "*Handbook of Card Distribution*, fifth edition. Washington, Govt. Print. Office, 1921"; and the Bulletins of the Card Division as well as the pamphlet "*Library of Congress Printed Cards; How to order and use them*, by C. H. Hastings. Fourth edition. Washington, Govt. Print. Office, 1921." These may be obtained by writing to the Librarian of Congress. It would perhaps be well to correspond with the Card Division of the Library before beginning to work out a method of using the cards in a "special" or a small library.

Number of Cards to be Ordered. In any case the librarian should determine in advance as well as may be the various uses to which he can profitably put Library of Congress cards. Of course, he must consider that ordinarily he will have to make the same number of cards himself to represent books for which he can

not obtain printed cards. If he has no cheap means of duplicating entries this is a very serious matter. Cards can well be used for (1) main entry, (2) a varying number of added entries (subjects, titles, references, editor and translator cards, etc.), (3) entry in official catalog, (4) shelf-lists, (5) departmental or special catalogs. In libraries devoted to specialties there may well be other uses, and in libraries having many branches or departments, there will naturally be a larger number of copies for the various catalogs. He should also determine how far he can use cards for slightly varying editions, imprints, etc., although this must naturally be a matter which will settle itself practically as the system comes into operation.

Ordering. The chief difficulty in using Library of Congress cards lies in the process of ordering them. Each year the stock of available cards increases by from 50,000 to 55,000 titles, and there are now (1924) over 900,000 titles in stock. As all are stored and arranged by their serial number, the cheapest and most rapid method of picking them out is by means of an order bearing this number. Accordingly the minimum charge (two and one-half cents each) is made for orders by number of the cards. This number may be obtained in various ways. There are depository sets of the entire stock of printed cards in most of the larger cities in the country. By consulting one of these files it is possible to ascertain definitely that a card has been printed for a given book and to note its number. Certain libraries

which are not depositories or subscribers to the entire set of printed cards subscribe to the cards covering certain subjects, as American history. Still others purchase (for $30 a year) a complete set of the manila paper proofsheets of the cards as issued, cut them up (they cut readily to card size), and file them. In this way a complete or partial set may be obtained at a slight initial cost, plus a moderate labor cost. There is some additional advantage in the saving of space over that occupied by the cards, which are of course thicker. But the manila paper slips are not handled or consulted as readily as cards. While the bibliographical value of such a list is its chief advantage, the facility with which desired card numbers may be secured adds greatly to its usefulness.

The process of securing the card number by a search of the file of cards or proof slips is laborious, but it has several advantages; *First*, the element of uncertainty as to whether cards may be had is thus removed in a very great part of the books to be cataloged. There will occur cases of books not represented in the file by cards which are just being cataloged at Washington at the time the file is consulted, but these cases are not numerous for the average library. *Second*, the number of subject and reference cards needed is definitely ascertained; *Third*, the cost of the cards is slightly lessened by ordering by number; *Fourth*, and most important; even if a card for the particular work is not found in the printed card file, frequently there are found cards

for other works by the same author, and the proper entry is thereby determined *without further bibliographic search.* This last item often saves as much time as is consumed in the routine search for a large number of titles.

Where no file of Library of Congress printed cards is easily accessible there are other means of securing the serial number and avoiding delay and expense by its use. The monthly *Booklist* published by the American Library Association contains the card number for each book described. The *Cumulative Book Index* published by the H. W. Wilson Company of New York and the *United States Catalog* of 1912 and its *Supplements*, issued by the same firm, give the card number in a very large percent of entries. The *A. L. A. Catalog* of 1904, and the *Supplements* for 1904–11 likewise give card numbers, as do the *Book Review Digest,* and the monthly *Catalogue of U. S. Public Documents.* The various lists published by the Library of Congress, including the Catalog of Copyright Entries, now give the card number in most cases. Among these lists the most commonly used is probably the Monthly List of State Publications, while the current bibliographic lists of recent years give the card number regularly.

When the number has once been found it should be written on a standard size slip bearing the name of the library at the bottom. The number of copies of the card desired is indicated by drawing a dash or a slanting line after the card number followed by the number of

copies. The author's name may be placed in the upper right hand corner, to identify the book in case the slip is returned, showing that cards are not at once available.

Sample order slip

	Brown
5–16381/4	
Homeville Public Library.	

In case the number is not known, the author, title, and imprint may be written on a similar card instead of the card number, the number of copies being indicated in the upper right hand corner.

Sample order slip

	4
Fox, John, Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come N. Y., Scribner's, 1903.	
Homeville Public Library.	

In each case it is essential to indicate the number of copies of the card desired. Librarians will find it profitable to order generously, as the expense of additional

cards is so slight ($.013 each), in comparison with the cost of ordering a second time, or of writing copies of the card when a sufficient number has not been ordered. *All slips should be arranged in numerical or alphabetical order before being sent to the Library of Congress.*

Accounting. On beginning to use printed cards a deposit must be made with the Librarian of Congress through the Card Division. Cards ordered are charged against this deposit and statements are sent with each shipment of cards. From time to time the deposit must be renewed as it approaches exhaustion. Consult the *Handbook of Card Distribution* for details of prices, methods of ordering, variations and accounting.

Ordering Cards When Book is Ordered. It is feasible to order the cards from Washington when the books are ordered from the dealer without waiting to have the volumes actually in hand. In case the card numbers can be found, the orders may be sent in the usual way. If facilities are wanting for ascertaining the card numbers, there are two methods open to the library purchasing cards. Slips like the one shown above, giving the author and title, etc. may be written for each item to be bought, or duplicates of the library's order-sheets to the dealer may be sent as orders for cards. On such sheets the orders should be arranged alphabetically by authors, and sufficiently full description of the books given to insure accuracy in filling the order.

When cards so ordered arrive in the library they should be filed in a case in the catalog room to await the arrival of the books. It is a great convenience to place on the order sheets or slips some arbitrary symbol to indicate that Library of Congress cards have been ordered. If this symbol is written in pencil in a designated place in the book when the bill is checked up with the books, the catalogers will know at once without further search that cards are presumably waiting for it in the file. If the symbol is not found in the book in its regular place, a second search should be made for the number of the printed card, and if not found, either an author and title order should be sent to Washington, or the cards must be made in the library.[2]

If printed cards are not to be had, the returned card order slip bearing that statement may be filed in the place which the printed cards would have occupied in the file of cards awaiting books in the catalog room. If copies of the sheets sent to the dealer are used in ordering cards, the fact that the printed cards can *not* be obtained can also be noted by means of an arbitrary symbol on the copy retained for comparison with the book dealer's invoice. The symbol may then be placed in the book, and the catalogers will know at once that cards must be written for that book in the library.

[2] The Greek letter φ makes a convenient symbol for such purposes. It is written with one motion, means nothing to the uninitiated, and therefore need not be erased. In some libraries a circle inscribing a dot, $\odot$, is used as a symbol signifying that printed cards have been ordered.

The Card Division of the Library of Congress always returns the order, so that clerical labor is thereby saved to both parties.

Ordering From "Traveling Catalogs." Libraries which are recataloging their collections, or any large part of them, may arrange to have "traveling catalogs" of groups of books in the Library of Congress sent to them for the purpose of ordering cards for recataloging. This must naturally be a matter of special agreement. It has proven a highly useful device when any very large number of books is to be recataloged, and the library is not a depository for the set of printed cards.

Scope of the Library of Congress Stock of Printed Cards. The stock of printed cards of the Library of Congress now (1924) exceeds 900,000 titles. Over 50,000 titles are added annually. The stock includes (1) Practically all books copyrighted in the United States since August, 1898. (2) All classes of books in the library except Religion, and some minor groups. In these classes, cards can be had for books copyrighted since August, 1898, and for most books purchased since June, 1901. These exceptions are steadily being diminished in number as the recataloging progresses. Further exceptions are numerous "analyticals" and entries for parts of series, the cataloging of which has necessarily been deferred until the completion of the bulk of the main entries.

In American History and in Bibliography the Library of Congress is especially rich. In other classes it is

strong in works in English, but not so complete in foreign works. It possesses and has cataloged by far the largest collection of official publications of governments, national and local, in the United States. It has rich special collections, such as Music, Maps, and Prints, for large portions of which printed cards are available. The specialized library, therefore, using printed cards from the Library of Congress will not find entries for all its books. A public library, particularly a small one, can regularly obtain over ninety percent of its cards from Washington. The small college library can ordinarily secure cards for over seventy-five percent of its accessions. The great university libraries secure as yet only about two thirds of the cards needed for their annual accessions.

Of late years the Library of Congress has been printing for other libraries cards representing books not in its own collections. This practice has increased the stock by several thousand titles yearly. Cards are also printed for several of the larger government libraries in Washington, including those of the Department of Agriculture, the Bureau of Education, the Bureau of Fisheries, the Geological Survey, the Department of Labor, and the Department of State. How far this feature may yet be developed remains to be seen, but the prospect for securing a printed card for practically every new book brightens daily.[3]

[3] Raney, M. L. Cataloging while you wait. *Library Journal*, Sept. 15, 1920, vol. 45, p. 735–736.

Printed Cards from Other Libraries. A considerable number of American and foreign libraries now print cards for all or part of their accessions, especially for books not covered by Library of Congress cards. The more important of these are The John Crerar Library of Chicago, the Libraries of Harvard and Chicago Universities, the New York Public Library, the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, and the State Library of Berlin. The Berlin Library now sells its cards to both regular subscribers and to occasional purchasers, and arrangements can be made with some of the others to supply cards to libraries filling a special field. The day is not far distant when there will be further organization of this now scattered work, and printed cards may be bought for practically every book of importance. For the book of merely curious or trifling interest cards will still be made as of old in the library itself. Just how the work of combining orders, accounts, and shipments from several sources is to be organized remains of course for the future. The pressure of universal need and demand is bound to produce the result sought in time.[4]

Use in the Library. When the book and the requisite number of printed cards for it have been

[4] *Cf. Library Journal*, January and February, 1912.

The effect of the World War of 1914–1918 has been to delay seriously all plans for such coöperative effort, and has even limited slightly the advance of the printed card work of the Library of Congress.

brought together in the library, there remain the following processes:

1. Comparison to see that the cards exactly correspond to the book in every particular. If they do not, and there has been no mistake in ordering, changes may be made in the cards either by drawing a heavy line in ink through the words or figures to be changed, and then interpolating between the lines or on the margin the proper data, or by erasing the words to be changed. The latter is a difficult and lengthy task, and never leaves the card in a neat and satisfactory appearance, particularly if done by hand. Erasure by motor driven instruments is much more effective.

2. Placing the classification number in the upper left-hand corner of all the cards, either with pen or typewriter.

3. Writing the subject and other added entries on the top of the cards. If all the added entries indicated on the face of the card are not used, those actually employed should be checked on the card to go into the official catalog in order to render it possible to gather all the cards in case of subsequent removal, changes, or additions.

4. In some libraries the accession number, or the order number in libraries which have abandoned the accession book, is placed on the back of each card. This device has certain decided advantages, particularly as a quick guide to accuracy in distinguishing editions, copies, etc.

5. If the heading (main entry) has not been compared with that already adopted in the library at the time of ordering the cards, this should be done at the outset in advance of the routine processes just outlined. It happens not infrequently—particularly in the older libraries—that the adoption of the heading used by the Library of Congress may carry with it changes involving so many cards already in the catalog and requiring so much work as entirely to offset any advantage to be gained by the use of the printed cards. In such cases the decision *not* to follow the Library of Congress form of entry (which is in accordance with the Rules of the American Library Association) does not by any means involve the abandonment of the use of the printed cards. The space at the top of the card is sufficient to permit the heading already in use in the library to be written by pen or typewriter above the printed heading, which can be cancelled or enclosed in brackets.

6. The cards when prepared for the library's use should be further revised to guard against clerical errors, and placed in a box for filing, while the books are forwarded for labeling (or marking by any other process), or else sent directly to the shelves.

Delay in Receipt. Delay occasionally occurs in filling orders for various reasons set forth in the *Handbook of Card Distribution*, Part V. As a rule new books should not be held in the catalog rooms until the arrival of the cards, but a temporary entry of the simplest form should be made and filed in the public and official

catalogs; of course when the printed cards arrive this temporary entry is removed and the printed card substituted. After some little experience in the use of printed cards catalogers will find it easy to decide whether or not to hold a book pending the arrival of printed cards.

CHAPTER VI

Cataloging Method

RULES AND DECISIONS

Codes.[1] Probably most libraries in English-speaking countries will wish to follow the Anglo-American code adopted by the British and American Library Asso-

[1] *Cf.* Cutter, Charles Ammi. Rules for a dictionary catalog. 4th ed., rewritten. Washington, Govt. Print. Off., 1904. 173 p. (U. S. Bureau of Education).

Dewey, Melvil. Library school rules: 1. Card catalog rules; 2. Accession book rules; 3. Shelf list rules. 4th ed. Boston, Library Bureau, 1899.

Dewey, Melvil. Simplified Library school rules; card catalog, accession, book numbers, shelf list, capitals, punctuation, abbreviations, library handwriting. Boston, Library Bureau, 1898.

Fumagalli, Giuseppe. Cataloghi di biblioteche, e indice bibliographici; memoria. Firenze, G. C. Sansoni, 1887.

Linderfelt, Klas August. Eclectic card catalog rules; author and title entries, based on Dziatzko's "Instruction" compared with the rules of the British Museum, Cutter, Dewey, Perkins, and other authorities, with an appendix, containing a list of oriental titles of honor and occupations. Boston, C. A. Cutter, 1890.

New South Wales. Public library, Sydney. Guide to the system of cataloguing of the reference library; with rules for cataloguing, the Relative decimal classification, and headings used in the subject-index. By H. C. L. Anderson. 4th ed., March, 1902. Sydney, W. A. Gullick, government printer, 1902.

Perkins, Frederic Beecher. San Francisco cataloguing for public libraries. A manual based on the system in use in the San Francisco free public library. San Francisco, C. A. Murdock & Co., 1884.

ciations.[2] This code is in the main the guide to practice of most American libraries at the present day, and is followed by the Library of Congress in its printed cards in all save a few minor particulars. As is well known,

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Instructionen für die alphabetischen katalog der preuszischen bibliotheken. Zweite ausg., 1908. Berlin, Behrend & Cie., 1909.

Quinn, John Henry. Manual of library cataloguing. London, Library Supply Co., 1899; rev. ed., 1913.

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Vienna. K. K. Hofbibliothek. Vorschrift für die verfassung des alphabetischen nominal-zettelketalogs der druckwerke. Hrsg. von der Direction. Mit zwei beilagen, einem sachregister und 500 beispielen. Wien, Selbstverlag der K. K. Hofbibliothek, 1901.

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Bodleian Library, Oxford. Rules for the author-catalogue of books published in or after 1920. 1923.

British Museum, London. Rules for compiling the catalogues in the Department of Printed Books. London, 1920.

[2] Catalog rules: author and title entries. Compiled by committees of the American Library Association and the [British] Library Association. American ed. Boston, A. L. A. Publishing Board, 1908. Now published (without change) by the American Library Association, Chicago.

it differs from the practice of the principal European codes chiefly in its treatment of what are known as "corporate entries," i.e., the whole body of publications of governments, institutions, societies, etc. There are surprisingly few points of difference between American and British practice under this code. Perhaps in time some agreement may yet be reached with Continental libraries which will admit of freer interchange of catalog cards and bibliographic data.

No code can be a complete guide to practice. Commentaries spring up almost immediately upon the adoption of a set of rules. The Library of Congress has *issued (in card form) a supplemental set of rules, giving* its own practice in matters not covered in the American Library Association code or requiring additional directions. Probably few libraries will need to follow all of these supplemental rules, many of which are rendered necessary by the great number of books in the collections of the Library of Congress. They may be bought of the Card Division.

Guides. The Library Association code is comparatively short and simple. Moreover it consists at present (1924) of rules for author entry only, with but little discussion of the principles laid down. It is generally found useful, therefore, to supplement this code by Cutter's *Rules for a Dictionary Catalog* (4th ed., Washington, Govt. Printing Office, 1904). Many libraries which have in the past used the Rules of the New York State Library School (Albany, 1905), will find these

still of decided help, particularly in interpreting earlier practice. Other aids may be freely used, provided that the fundamental distinction between the earlier codes and modern practice, i.e., the use of one card for all purposes, is not lost sight of.[3] Exhaustive and yet condensed directions for the accurate and detailed description of printed books of the early, middle and modern periods will be found in *Standard descriptions of printed books* published by Madan, Duff and Gibson in the *Proceedings* of the Oxford Bibliographical Society, vol. 1, p. 55–64, 1923. This article can be obtained separately from the Society.

Decisions. No matter how carefully and loyally the effort is made to follow a set of rules, there will constantly arise cases in which the proper practice is doubtful and requires study. Whenever general principles rather than particular and isolated cases are involved, a decision must be made between the various possible entries or forms of entry. Such decisions may well be rendered by the librarian in counsel with not

[3] Brown, J. D. Library Classification and Cataloguing. London, Libraco Ltd., 1912.

Quinn, T. H. Manual of library cataloguing. London, Truslove and Hanson, 1913.

Sayers, W. C. B. and Stewart, J. D. The card catalogue. London, Grafton & Co., 1913.

Guppy, Henry. Special lectures for library assistants and others. Cataloguing and classification. *Library Association Record,* 1920, 1921, 1922, *passim.*

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only the chief cataloger but with various other chiefs of departments. The cataloger's work touches everyone in the library. An attitude of aloofness toward it on the part of any portion of the staff is always unfortunate, and may be lamentably serious. Decisions on particular entries or minor points need not, of course, be the subject of general discussions. But interpretations of the rules which determine habitual treatment of debatable classes of entries must necessarily be known to all the staff, and the various branches of the service should be heard on them.

Decisions once reached should be recorded and duplicated. If a board sits on points of cataloging practice, as in some large libraries, one of its members should serve as secretary and keep a journal of topics discussed and results reached. These results—drawn as compactly as possible—should be communicated to every member of the library staff who will use either the catalog or any other records of the library. Only in this manner can uniformity of information or action be secured. The accessions clerk, the binding clerk, the periodical clerk (in large libraries), will then use the same *style* of entry as that found in the catalog, to the vast improvement of the service.[4]

[4] In tracing in one library a missing part of a German work appearing at irregular intervals and in varying editions—Iwan Mueller's *Handbuch,* to wit, I have found as many as five different forms of entry for the various parts in different records. Naturally there was much time wasted in identifying these different entries—and perhaps the missing part had been entered a sixth way, and was after all in the Library.

Aside from this record of decisions in debatable cases there will still be need for record in the official catalog of the final decision in every individual case. A card bearing the heading adopted, the authorities consulted, the opposing possibilities, and perhaps a very brief statement of the reason for the adoption of the chosen entry, and (most important of all) the date and initials of the person rendering the decision, should be inserted before each heading which has been questioned.

Old Entries and New Rules. In any library which antedates the formulation of the American Library Association code there may of course be thousands of entries made in conformity with earlier rules which contravene the new rules. It becomes a very serious matter to bring the old and the new into line, especially when printed cards are to be used for current accessions. In such cases it is frequently possible to buy printed cards (occasionally with some slight variation of imprint) for *all* the older entries of a given author, thus making thorough work of the revision at a minimum of expense, and insuring reasonable continuity for the future. In many cases this drastic and effective method is not feasible. Then it is always possible to use the printed card, cancelling the heading, and writing above it that previously used in the library. There is sufficient space at the top of the cards to permit this practice. In this way very extensive changes may be avoided, and later when printed cards become available for all the old books (as they surely will from some source), the change

can be made *en bloc.* Awaiting that happy event, it is well to insert in the file of Library of Congress cards (or cut proofsheets), supposing such a file to be kept as a necessary part of the cataloging equipment, a dated note of the decision just before the entry which it has been decided *not* to follow. This will secure uniformity of treatment, and further when a very large number of printed cards becomes available, the filers will from time to time report that fact to the head of the cataloging work, who can then take up the question of substituting the new entry for the old in systematic fashion.

Decisions on Subject Headings. While the matter of subject headings will be discussed in a later chapter, it may be well to point out here the need for an official list in the catalog room of all subject headings adopted, containing, of course, full references from the various forms proposed but not chosen. When libraries are small, or when some wholly new kind of work is begun, the need for such a list is not felt, and it is too frequently ignored. The more specific the purpose of the library or of a given part of its work, the more its list of subject headings will vary from those ordinarily employed in libraries, and the greater the need of proper record. But it is exactly in such specializing libraries that precautions of this nature are generally not taken until confusion and laxness have driven home the necessity for system. The library of a laboratory or of a professional institution can not, of course, be content with

any such list of subject headings as the American Library Association List, though it may well follow this list, or better the Library of Congress List, for its general headings. But if no official list is kept, continuity of treatment becomes a matter of mood and memory, and a change of catalogers brings disaster. The simple device of a card or sheet list of all subject entries prevents most difficulties from arising, and helps greatly to resolve such as must be met. Here also each card should bear date and initials, and on the back should be recorded any references to it inserted elsewhere in the list. If the subject is an unusual or peculiar one, a brief note of the book or books for which it was used is not difficult to add at the time of its adoption, and aids greatly in subsequent interpretation of the entry. In general it may be said that lists of this sort suffer from too laconic entries rather than from an excess of information. Definition of the meaning and scope of the subject heading should be recorded in all cases in which any doubt can arise.

One whole class of entries can be eliminated from such a list of subjects by adopting the rule that the form of subject entry for a person shall invariably be the same as the author entry for that person. Thus the rules for authors govern all biographical and other individual subject headings.[5] The use of a scheme of

[5] This rule occasionally leads to some unusual forms for popular names, but despite these occasional intrusions of precision into popular nomenclature, the rule is decidedly valuable, as this practice saves everyone's time and strength.

subheads for subject entries for individuals identical (or nearly so) with the corresponding subheads of the classification will avoid the necessity for further record in the subject list. Thus the subject list will contain few names of persons, though the subject catalog may contain thousands.

Libraries with catalogs begun years since and which have never recorded a list of their subject entries in their catalog rooms will find the labor of drawing off onto cards with a list amply repaid. Discrepancies and errors never suspected will speedily be brought to light to the great benefit of the catalog. Moreover the saving of time thereby effected in the cataloging of new accessions is much greater than would at first be supposed. With such a list at hand there is no need to search through the catalog for various possible subject entries. The time thus saved is perhaps even greater than in the case of the "official" author catalog,—and the value of that tool is well known. The gain to readers through uniformity in the treatment of subjects is so great that any device which assists in securing uniformity is rendered worth while, unless it be too clumsy or too expensive to operate.

Unit Card. It is inevitable that the use of several copies of one printed card should strengthen the practically identical method of duplicating a single card for books for which a printed card can not be secured, that is, the adoption of what is generally termed the "unit card" system for all books. Other advantages than

those of routine are found in this practice, the chief of which is perhaps the saving thus effected in the time of the more highly paid assistants, who write but the first card, indicating all added entries, etc. This card is then copied and the various added entries made by the copyist on the cards requiring them. The fact that the reader using the catalog thus has the same information before him whichever form of entry he consults is also a decided gain. The unit card duplicated in accordance with need is therefore the basic principle of modern library practice.[6]

ROUTINE

Having decided on a code of rules, the number and kind of catalogs to be maintained, the use of printed cards where possible, and the principle of one card duplicated for various purposes, the routine of cataloging practice next comes up for study. This routine must vary with each institution and each group of individuals. But whether the library be large or small, whether its catalogers are specialists or not, there remain certain main processes which will have to be performed and certain points which will require decision. These are taken up in the order in which they are customarily performed.

[6] It is astonishing to observe that this absolutely logical inference from the use of the printed card has not received universal adoption in libraries. Of course those under a progressive administration adopted this principle years since. But the older mode still lingers on—chiefly through the force of inertia, it would seem.

Assignment of Work.[7] Too frequently the person in charge of cataloging work—whether he be the librarian in a small library, or the head cataloger in a large one—forgets that there is great need for discretion in planning the work. Too often it happens that new books are handled in steady sequence, without discrimination either as to their relative importance and the character of the work involved in cataloging them, or the differing abilities of the cataloging force. In directing a group of catalogers the total output and the efficiency of the staff can be greatly multiplied by continual and careful study of the work as it presents itself day by day. Too many problems requiring vexatious study and investigation should not go to the sort of cataloger who does routine clerical work by the hour without fatigue—nor should too heavy doses of simple cataloging be continued when it is evident that the recipient is "going stale." Of course certain categories will present themselves: Russian books must be done by the one who knows Russian, for example. The head cataloger who will take pains to find out what each of his people can do best, what each likes to do most, and what each does poorly, will be able to assign tasks so deftly that the force will work rapidly and harmoniously, will develop an esprit-de-corps, and will handle an astonishing number of books. He will, of course, encourage specialization, but will not suffer the specialist to neglect his general knowledge of cataloging and of the library in which he is working.

[7] *Cf.* p. 55.

Main Entry. In some libraries entry is determined as a matter of routine by each cataloger for the book he has in hand. In others entry is determined first, generally by a cataloger of higher rank or greater experience, and the description of the book prepared by another from the marked title page. There are advantages in either method. Supposing a file of Library of Congress printed cards (or cut proofsheets) to be kept in the library, there is a decided gain in having one person of experience search for entry and for printed cards as well, thus making one process with two ends in view. Whether an entry is found in the Library of Congress file or not, search should again be made in the library's official catalog for the form of entry previously adopted in the library. If this is found to differ from the Library of Congress form (and if the difference is not one of rule, and therefore well recognized by all the force) the discrepancy should be reported to the chief cataloger and a decision reached as to which form to follow. This decision may well be a matter of conference with the librarian if there are numerous entries, for there will be a certain amount of expense involved in extensive changes, to say nothing of inconvenience. The proper form of entry, it may be remarked, is very easily found for at least three quarters of the books cataloged.

If no entry is found in the Library of Congress file or in the official catalog, it is questionable whether the person making the search should go further. Unless

the entry is obviously a matter which will prove very puzzling, the book had better be forwarded at once to its cataloger. Serious problems should be kept for consultation with the chief of the cataloging work.[8]

Title. The present American Library Association rule is to transcribe the whole title, neither altering or abridging it in any way. In perhaps ninety per cent of modern books this rule is perfectly sensible and praiseworthy. There is no chance for error in thus copying the title page, and questions as to editions, etc., can hardly arise, if this is done. But in the case of a few modern books and in most books prior to the nineteenth century the slavish following of this rule works confusion and trouble. It is frequently necessary to carry the title (even on the printed cards) over to a second card, and occasionally even to a third and fourth card. Generally the smaller and less important the book, the longer the title. The rule is absurd when it gives us two or more cards where one would be enough for every practical purpose. There should be some latitude allowed catalogers in this matter, and heads of libraries will do well to insist that the rule be not followed in this letter.

[8] No attempt is made in this work to discuss the theory of entry, nor to offer suggestions on disputed points. The various codes previously cited and the works on cataloging mentioned in the footnotes, will prove ample for those who desire to compare authorities or to investigate problems. Here we are concerned solely with the practice of cataloging, taking up matters which have to be decided and carried out in the course of each day's work.

It is ordinarily better to begin even an abridged title with the first words on the page, and let the eliminations come in the latter part. Of course this is not always possible, particularly in cataloging German *programmen* and the like, in which the vital portion of the title is frequently given in small type at the bottom of the page—perhaps even on the back of the title-page, preceded by *Inest* or *Insunt.* In such cases the lengthy and formal heading subsides on the catalog card into a very much abbreviated note.

Author's Name in Title. Following out the theory that the title is to be an accurate and complete transcript of the title page, the American Library Association Rules command that the author's name shall be given just as it appears on the title page, generally as a part of a sentence, as "Library classification and cataloging, by James Duff Brown," or; "The subject-catalogs of the Library of Congress, By J. C. M. Hanson," notwithstanding the fact that the author's name has already appeared in the heading. This practice has a certain value, particularly in the numerous cases in which the author's name as given on the title page is different from the heading adopted as the main entry. Any doubt as to what was the form actually used on the title page disappears when this rule is followed. But in probably ninety out of a hundred of the books cataloged the rule involves unnecessary labor and repetition of that labor in duplicating cards by hand. Consequently it seems a wholly unnecessary practice to

adopt in the case of cards made in the library. Small and moderately large libraries will do well to observe the rule in every case in which the author entry used differs from the name given on the title page. In all other cases the phrase containing the author's name may safely be omitted.

Edition. The modern practice is to treat the note of the edition as a part of the title, and to insert it before the imprint without regard to its actual place on the title page. If ascertained elsewhere, the facts are given in square brackets. Even small libraries can not safely omit the statement of the edition, however simple their catalogs.

Exactly what constitutes an "edition" is not easy to say. It is not well to go behind the face of the title page in this matter. A note is the proper place for any comment on the claim in the title. Doubt arises chiefly in the case of first editions and "issues," and is generally a matter of bibliographic minutiae rather than of essential differences in the text of the work.

Imprint. Place, publisher, and date constitute the imprint as ordinarily defined in cataloging practice. No one of these items can be omitted with safety on any card. The record of them does far more than differentiate between editions of a book. In nine cases out of ten when a book other than fiction is looked up in a card catalog, the place and date determine the reader's selection of a book by an author previously unknown to him. In about the same per cent of cases the pub-

lisher's general reputation influences the reader's choice. Of course it makes little difference to the average reader whether an edition of, for instance, The Pilgrim's Progress was published in London, or Dublin, or New York by any one of a score of firms. But even in such a case the man with a little knowledge of books will ask for an edition by a certain firm because he knows the style of book, of type, etc., commonly used by that firm at a given time. He will prefer to read an edition printed by Ticknor and Fields to one issued, let us say, by the American Tract Society.

But much more important is the significance of the date and place of publication as indicating the probable character of the book, the state of knowledge at the time of publication. On the referendum, for example, a book printed in the seventies would be of little use to a student of present American tendencies. These things are the veriest commonplace of scholarly investigation, but unfortunately in their zeal to save time and money, too many librarians have allowed themselves to take the point of view of the persistent reader of fiction in the manufacture of their catalog cards. To the devourer of novels in the average circulating library, place, publisher, and date are alike meaningless and unnoticed. But not so to the rest of the world.

Collation. The extent to which collation shall be given must be determined by each library for itself. On the Library of Congress printed cards will be found a fairly full collation, including such items as prelimi-

nary leaves, illustrations, tables, diagrams, maps, plans, facsimilies, plates, series-notes, etc., in addition to the ordinary information of the number of pages (or volumes) and the height of the book. Now this information is sometimes very valuable, and is never obtrusive, being in smaller type and on a separate line from the title and imprint. But it is very doubtful whether it is wise for every library to attempt the same fullness in the case of every card it makes for itself. There is no question that even small libraries will need to give the number of volumes or pages, the height (or size) of the book, and on occasion the series note. Maps and illustrations may well be noted, as the fact that one book has them and another on the same topic does not will frequently influence the reader's choice. But that all geometries, for example, should have the fact that they contain diagrams specified on the card remains to be proven. It would seem sensible in the case of most libraries to note in the collation only such items as are likely to be of service in selecting or identifying the book. Very large libraries will doubtless desire full collation. And in small or specialized libraries books of peculiar rarity or interest may be treated with especial fullness. The main thing is to have a definite rule as regards the collation of the average book—not to leave the matter to the whim of the cataloger or to chance.

Notes. The chief difficulty in the matter of notes in the case of typewritten or handwritten cards is that,

being of the same size of type or letter as the title, they occupy an inordinate amount of room, are not easily distinguished from the title, and consequently lead the inexpert users of the catalog into some confusion. The use of type of a smaller size enables the note to drop into its proper position on the printed card. The average library, then, in its own unprinted catalog cards will probably be chary of notes for the average book. But precisely because they are not needed for the ordinary, straight-forward work produced by one person, on a definite topic, and published at a given time and place by an established commercial publisher, they *are* needed in the case of the vast number of brochures and volumes brought out by various individuals or organizations in coöperation, and printed by some society, government, magazine, or institution. We live in an age of journalism and of society publications. For such the descriptive note is the reader's salvation.

Notes should be notes, not explanations or treatises. Conciseness and brevity must be insisted on. Particular care is needed not to omit information which will enable a second copy existing in some series, or set, to be located rapidly. The caution that the note should be distinguished from the customary bibliographic description of the book by both dropping a line on the card, and making it a new paragraph is perhaps not superfluous.

The preceding paragraphs refer of course to notes of a strictly bibliographic character, telling how and in what form the book described was published, whether it is an original or a later issue, etc. Other kinds of notes are also in vogue among catalogers. Among them are the "contents" note, and an "evaluation" of the book itself, as distinguished from the form of its publication.

Contents. The practice of giving the contents in a note in the case of books either of composite authorship or on a variety of topics (as a book of essays or a collection of short stories) is growing steadily in favor. Contents are also frequently listed when the title of the book is misleading or inaccurate, or does not indicate definitely the scope of the work. Occasionally the full contents are not given, but only the headings of parts or volumes. These indications of the scope of a book are always welcome to students, and serve a most useful purpose. They save a great amount of time and no little vexation.

The question of giving the contents on catalog cards made in the library should usually be decided by the head cataloger in accordance with a policy adopted by the library. When the entry is determined it is frequently possible to suggest—or direct—that a contents note be made. Even small libraries will find that such notes repay the time spent on them, supposing always that the decision that a note is required be made with discrimination. The rule should be to give contents only when such a note will aid in interpreting a title which lacks definiteness. In other cases even large

libraries will omit it because it is not needed. Contents notes are generally sufficient to indicate the scope of a book—if not, a further note may be desirable.

Evaluation.[9] How far a library should go in giving an appraisal of the value or character of its books is a debated question. No one will dispute the worth of critical *lists* of books prepared by competent authorities for particular classes of readers. But to undertake to give even a slight critical note for every book added to the library involves so much work in the creation of a product of doubtful, or at least ephemeral, value that many, if not most, librarians shrink from adopting the plan. Libraries are of such diverse sorts, and have such widely differing constituencies that no writer can attempt to lay down a rule in this matter. The need of the reader is, however, the sole guiding principle in this, as in other problems. Where the readers are all specialists, as in a research library or that of a great manufacturing establishment, there is no need for the ordinary note, but on the contrary a pointed and brief estimate of the worth of the book from the standpoint of the workers in that particular field may prove a most valuable addition to the catalog, increasing greatly its usefulness as a tool of research. Where the readers are

[9] *Cf.* Savage, E. A. Manual of descriptive annotation for library catalogues. London, Library Supply Co., 1906.

For the literature on this topic down to 1909 *cf.* Cannons, Bibliography of Library Economy, p. 357–358.

Cf. also Iles, George. A bureau of review. An address to the New York State Library School, Albany, April 18, 1913.

mostly inexpert, the need for description and appraisal is perhaps more keenly felt, but is vastly more difficult to give. The plight of the inexperienced man or woman standing before a huge card catalog is truly a challenge to the inventiveness of the makers of that instrument. To leave these readers wholly without guidance seems in the light of modern library aims both improvident and unfair. And yet the difficulties in the way of the average library, hard pressed for funds, and conscious of its own inadequacy in many directions, are so apparent that few librarians have felt justified in adopting the principle of evaluation for all books listed in their catalogs.

After all, the problem is one of arrangement and style of catalog, as well as of descriptive or critical notes. If notes are to be of any value, they must be found quickly and seen easily. The catalog in book form, the bulletin, or else the special list, affords opportunity for descriptive or critical annotation which the ordinary catalog of typewritten or manuscript cards does not and can not furnish. If the library goes in for evaluation, it will almost be forced to abandon the alphabetical arrangement under subjects. If it presumes to say that a certain book is by far the best one ever written on a topic, it is of course wholly foolish to leave that fact to be discovered in the proper alphabetical place in which its author falls. Logic would seem to require an arrangement of a different sort.

When it is desired to give notes on cards, it will probably be best to confine them to such points as the author's qualifications, his attitude "pro" or "con" on a debated topic, the scope of the treatment, and perhaps some indication of the manner of handling his theme. These can usually be given succinctly, frequently in a single phrase or word. It is highly desirable that all the information be on one card. Lengthy notes are a source of confusion.[10]

Series Cards. This is a day of publishers' series and sets. Moreover, books that of themselves would never find a publisher are brought out by various forms of coöperation. Institutions of all sorts, and innumerable societies issue series of monographs. Frequently the name of the collected group is better known than that of any of its members. Still more frequently books are cited by the number (or year) in the collected title, or even by some such loose description as "Renan's Hibbert Lectures." All too seldom are these series numbered consecutively and normally. Usually there are additional volumes, interpolations, sub-series, omissions, and other interruptions to the smooth current of volumes flowing from the press. Hence vexation and loss of time. Series cards should therefore be made for every sort of series, and preferably a separate card should be written for each monograph, rather than a number

[10] *Cf.* Foster, Wm. E. Annotations "pro" and "con" in the catalog. *Library Journal*, Sept., 1916, vol. 41, p. 726. Also, *Library Journal*, vol. 41, p. 378, June, 1916.

of entries on a single card. This enables one to interpolate printed cards very freely (with the series entry written on top), and also to fill in gaps in the series cards as the missing volumes are procured. Of course a note must be made on the back of the main entry card in the official catalog indicating that a series entry is made. (When the series is the main entry, note must be made of analytical cards for monographs.) This work is always vexatious and difficult to keep absolutely up to date, but it pays as few departments of cataloging pay. The comfort of full series cards can only be felt by reference librarians who have worked without them.

Analyticals. The analysis of books of composite authorship or treating of a variety of topics is a problem demanding the continual exercise of discretion. Whether to make "analyticals" or to let the main entry stand for the work without further note must be determined by each librarian with the needs of his own constituency in view. A special library may need to make analytical entries that amount to indexing the chapters of a book. A public library may be obliged to let a single entry suffice for even a publisher's series. In general the opinion of reference librarians is for as many analyticals as can be manufactured considering the whole burden of cataloging work. It should be borne in mind that the analysis of composite works and series is very likely to be the subject of coöperative effort in the future, and librarians may well hesitate to enter on formidable tasks of the sort when in a few years, or even

months, printed cards may be bought at a cheap price. For instance what library would lightly undertake to make cards for every title in the great set of the Greek and Latin Fathers published by Migne, the *Patrologiae cursus completus*, without counting the cost very carefully, remembering that every item is entered in the catalogs of the Peabody Institute and of the British Museum?[11] A further cause for hesitation is the fact that each analytical requires subject cards, and frequently other added entries as well.

Opposed to this cautious view is the crying need for the identification of every work of a given author or on a given topic. It is doubtless of decided value to know that the library has the collections of some society, the memoirs of some academy, the lectures on some foundation. But for once that such a book as Hatch's *Influence of Greek ideas and usages upon the Christian Church* is cited as the Hibbert Lectures for 1888, or Max West's *Inheritance Tax* as volume 4, part 2 of the Columbia University Studies in history, economics and public law, they are referred to ten times by their authors' names or their titles as monographs. But not monographs in series alone demand analyticals; commemora-

[11] Photo-duplicating machines have put these entries for great composite works thoroughly analysed in certain printed catalogs to new uses. For instance, with the consent of the Peabody Institute Library, its entries for the Migne series were published by the General Library of the University of Michigan in photostat facsimile, enlarged to double the original size—for the sake of clearness—and bound into a convenient index volume. This has proven most useful and practical.

tive volumes, *festschriften* and various other composite books appear in ever increasing numbers, and require analysis in the catalog, if their contents are to be of any great value. And despite the multiplication of professional bibliographies and indexes, it is by no means certain that the modern library can afford to ignore in its public catalog the articles in the more important periodicals. The temptation to make analytical entries is therefore very strong.[12]

When a decision has been made to enter on the analysis of a series or even of a single work, if ten or more cards in all are to be needed, and if the library owns a small job printing press (or multigraph), it is a very economical method to print the title of the book or series on blank cards, allowing sufficient space for the entry and individual title above the printed lines. The call number can usually also be printed, and occasionally the place and date, leaving only a small amount to be filled in by hand for each varying title.

Added Entries. All cards made for a book in addition to the main entry card are technically termed "added entries," or additional entries. These are ordinarily cards indicating the subject or title of a book, or cards giving additional information as to the persons concerned in its production, such as translators, joint-authors, editors, etc. Subject entry is treated in the

[12] *Cf.* Fry, W. G. Subject analytical cataloguing *Library World*, vol. 18, p. 36–41.

following chapter. It is necessary to adopt a definite policy as to added entries, to determine how freely they shall be made, and what form the cards for them shall take. In using printed cards, added entries are written above the main heading, usually indenting one space. If the "unit" card system is followed, the same practice will be pursued for cards written in the library. It is well to make added entries freely, particularly for titles, editors and translators. Added entry cards should *in every case* bear the call number of the book,[13] and should be recorded on the main entry card. Some libraries restrict added entries on the ground that they require extra labor, but they are of so much value in the practical use of the catalog that the work is well spent.

Title Cards. An entry should be made for every distinctive or significant title, including the titles of all novels, books of essays, and separately published poems. Titles beginning with such words as "On," "Report," "History," "Account," "Narrative," and the like will not ordinarily require a title entry. But the very general habit on the part of readers of recalling titles rather than authors makes the free use of title entries highly advisable. In the case of the unit card, the method is clear and simple, as with the printed card. Some libraries will prefer still to follow the old custom of making merely

[13] In the supposed interest of economy some libraries have omitted the call number on added entry cards. This is a most vexatious practice, requiring a reader to hunt out the main entry to secure the call number and thus get his book.

a title reference card in the interest of supposed economy. This practice is not a bad one in small libraries, if only the call number is given. In general it is bad policy to send a reader from one card to another to get information, particularly the call number of the book.. Only general reference cards which naturally apply to all the works by one author or on a given topic may with safety omit the call number, and even these may give it in many cases, as when the author has a definite place in the classification of literature.

Reference Cards. Cards for variant forms of name should be freely made, and recorded in the official catalog on the card noting the final decision, with the authorities followed, date, etc. Corresponding to these are the "See" and "See also" references in the subject cards. As reference cards need be made but once, pains should be taken to see that they are made at the time a decision on a debatable entry is reached. If this is always done, no general reference cards need ordinarily be written whenever an entry is found in the official catalog. The fact that the various forms are noted and checked on the decision card is of itself sufficient, unless some new and unrecorded form occurs on the title page of the book to be cataloged.

COPYING

The chief cost, all things considered, in copying is the necessary revision of the work. The eye and hand fatigue which copying involves, and the time and

strength needed for its accurate revision point to some mechanical means of copying the "unit" card made by the cataloger as a practical necessity. This has been sought in various mechanical devices.

Hectograph, etc. The "hectograph," "shapirograph," "copygraph," and various other processes depending on the use of an aniline dye ink and a gelatine or putty pad are the chief of these. The results obtained are surprisingly good, although the ink will surely fade in time, and that far more quickly than the ink in a thoroughly good typewriter record ribbon. But as catalog cards in trays are but little exposed to sunlight, the fading is not rapid, and the cards in any public catalog will probably need to be replaced because they are soiled long before the ink has faded. That replacement can probably be done with printed cards when the time comes to do it. One serious difficulty in the use of this means of duplication by facsimile is the necessity for an initial card free from corrections and entirely clear and legible. The original of the hectograph duplication must of course be made slowly and very carefully, and must be revised before the copies are taken.

Multigraph, etc. Certain processes involving the use of movable types and quick printing have proven very successful on a small scale.[14] There is a decided advantage in that one proofreading serves for all the copies to be made. It is even possible for a bright boy

[14] *Cf.* Raney, M. L. The multigraph and the flexotype in cataloging work. *Library Journal,* December, 1911, v. 36, p. 629–32.

who has received a little instruction to set up the type for the cards directly from the title page previously marked by the cataloger, thus saving a great deal of labor. The result is a card resembling a typewritten one, but clearer in outline, and very cheaply made. Five, ten, or more copies can be made with great rapidity after the first revision, and no further revision is needed, except for added entries, etc., as in the case of the printed cards. The machines are somewhat expensive, but are very profitable in libraries where much work must be done, and which can not afford to print cards on linotype machines. It is possible that the future will see extensive improvements and the wide adoption of such means of duplication.

Typewriter. The cards can be copied on a typewriter, but of course each one must then be revised separately. Care should be given to securing proper card holders, platens, and record ribbons. The ribbons containing the so-called "copying" inks must never be used on card work, as this ink both fades quickly and smears badly. Ribbons made by any of the prominent manufacturers which are guaranteed by the makers to be for "record" purposes contain a large percentage of carbon, and have given satisfactory results under the most exacting tests.

Hand Copying. If cards are copied by hand, or all made by the cataloger, two precautions must be observed. First, the ink must be a true record ink, such as conforms to the tests for durability instituted by the Massachu-

setts Commissioner of Records.[15] Second, the copying must be entirely legible. A "library" hand is not an absolute necessity, but it is generally a decided advantage to acquire it. Many librarians prefer the "disjointed" hand or print form to the ordinary vertical cursive handwriting taught in the schools.

It is probable that the future will see some mechanical copyer, or even some machine for photographic reproduction of cards which will displace hand copying entirely. Cards copied by the photostat have not been entirely satisfactory chiefly owing to their tendency to curl.

FILING

When the cards are all made and revised they must be filed in the various catalogs. This is a much more serious task than is commonly supposed, and grows more difficult with the rapid increase in size of our card catalogs. Absolute accuracy in filing is a *sine qua non* in the card catalog. This means not only the consistent following of rules of arrangement, but no carelessness and no mistakes. As a matter of physiological psychology we know that very few persons are capable of continuous filing for several hours without an undue fatigue which surely results in inaccuracy.

[15] *Cf.* Massachusetts. Record Commission. Report on record inks and paper, Boston, 1891, and subsequent reports.

U. S. Bureau of Standards. Circular no. 95. Inks, their composition, manufacture and methods of testing. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1920.

Filers should then be chosen with great care by thorough tests. A physique which will enable one to stand at the cases (or to get up and down very often, if the filing is done sitting), for some hours daily; eyes which are not easily strained by sustained attention to details of cards in order to preserve a strictly alphabetic arrangement; and an accurate habit of mind must be sought for and found, if the filing is to be done well. If it is done ill, the whole cataloging force will fall into disrepute. Some people are born filers. They can keep at it day in and day out without strain and without error. But they are rare. Others file very well for a couple of hours, and then the eye and hand fatigue begins to tell, and frightful errors are perpetrated. Such persons, when they must be used for filing, should never be allowed to work up to their physical limit. No beginner should ever be set to filing in the public or the official catalog, and all filing in those catalogs should be revised.

Arrangement. The rules for arrangement generally followed are those given in Cutter's *Rules* (4th ed., p. 111–129). It would be an admirable thing if the main features of these rules could be reduced to small compass and posted conspicuously about the catalog. They might well be printed on some of the guide cards used in each drawer.

It is to be feared that the arrangement of large card catalogs will always prove a difficult matter, even to one who has had long experience in consulting them. Because of the necessity for proper arrangement of sub-

headings, series, headings which are identical in form but not in sense, headings of almost exactly similar form, etc., the card catalog will always need an interpreter in practice. It is helpful to indicate (preferably on a guide card or on a card of a different color from the mass of the catalog) the subheadings to follow every principal entry, whether author or subject, as is generally done in book catalogs. By means of this device the reader can tell just where he is to look among subject cards filling half a tray for the particular subhead of which he is in search.[16]

Non-alphabetic Arrangement. It is ordinarily assumed that the arrangement in a card catalog must be an alphabetic one—at least in other than classified catalogs. Under subjects, however, it may well be a chronological or inverse-chronological order which is followed.

Books falling within a certain period may well be grouped in the card catalog as they are in most classification systems and as they would be in a scientific bibliography in book form. There is even a certain convenience in placing the card for the latest book first

[16] *Cf.* Cleveland Public Library. Filing rules for the arrangement of the dictionary catalogs . . . 1922.

Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh. Rules for filing cards in the dictionary catalogues . . . 2d. ed. Pittsburgh, Carnegie Library, 1917.

Barnstead, Winifred G. Filing rules for dictionary catalogs. [Toronto], Wilgress, 1918.

under subject headings. A specialized library would find this arrangement a great benefit to its readers.[17]

Guide Cards. A card catalog can hardly have too many guide cards. If the catalog is to be handled by many persons, the guides should be protected by celluloid, or by metal tips. Several patterns of these are on the market. In the matter of numerous guides, librarians, who gave the card index to business, may well learn from the practice of commercial houses. A guide should be made for each author heading having fifteen or more cards, and for each sub-heading. Every subject heading and sub-heading should have a separate guide card. Where so many guides are used they need not be of such extremely thick bristol board as is now commonly employed. The filers should be held responsible for making guides as needed.

[17] *Cf.* p. 142–144.

CHAPTER VII

SUBJECT HEADINGS

There are no such fixed principles for subject entry as years of practice have developed for author entry. But few guides to subject cataloging have been published,[1] and there has been no general agreement on the theory of the subject catalog such as the development of the printed card has produced for author catalogs.

And yet no library worthy of the name fails to give its readers some sort of clue or guide to the contents of its collections. Its first purpose is, generally speaking, to provide for itself an inventory of its books as they stand on the shelves (shelf-list), then to give readers an inventory by authors (the author catalog), and last, perhaps because most difficult, comes the index, or guide, or key to the subject matter of the books. Most librarians are fairly well satisfied with their shelf-lists and author catalogs if they are reasonably up to date and accurate. But few librarians and fewer scholars who use libraries are thoroughly well satisfied with their subject catalogs. The principles of author entry are indeed not all determined. But the comparative simplicity of the rules now

[1] Cutter's *Rules* contain some admirable chapters on the theory of subject entry.

Brief notes of value will be found on p. xv and xxii of the Preface to the London Library Subject Index, London, 1909.

in force, and the substantial progress already made toward uniform and sane entries show that we are fairly successful on the side of author cataloging. Methods of indicating to readers what the library possesses on the subjects of interest to them are by no means so simple or so uniform. This chapter, then, is devoted to some of the more important problems of subject cataloging.

There have been two convenient tools available for use in forming catalogs of subjects. The American Library Association List of Subject Headings, first published in 1895, and last issued in a revised form in 1912, has been generally followed as a guide both for form and for specific headings. This is a handy compilation for public libraries, but is of little value to libraries of other sorts. The tables of sub-heads, etc., are valuable, and the numerous references suggested will at least raise many questions in the mind of the cataloger assigning subjects.

The Library of Congress list is now (1924) completed. It is, of course, on a very much larger scale than the American Library Association list, and therefore more likely to contain helpful suggestions. The headings printed on the cards issued by the Library of Congress are a constant commentary on the application of the list. Names of places and persons are not printed in either list. They will be found to form a very large percent of the total number of subject cards in any library. The Library of Congress list shows naturally very many subdivisions of topics which smaller libraries do not need to follow at the outset. The cards on a given topic can

always be taken up as a block for sub-division when this becomes desirable.

To these has been added an excellent list by Miss Margaret Mann of *Subject headings for juvenile catalogs* published by the American Library Association in 1916. This is not only a valued tool for catalogers of children's books, but it will be found very helpful to persons cataloging small public libraries. Similarly the subject headings in the *A. L. A. Catalog* and its various *Supplements* will prove most suggestive to students of the subject.

Uniformity in Rules. At present no two libraries are likely to agree on their entries for subjects which are not proper names. While a man may go into almost any American library and find the entries for authors practically the same as in most other institutions, he never knows whether his previous experience will aid him in running down books on any given topic. The very fact that the unit card may be made to fit into any scheme of subject entry, whether classified or alphabetical, has probably rendered librarians indifferent to the need or desirability of uniform methods of treating subjects. Moreover there is generally no guide furnished (in the case of dictionary catalogs, at all events) to the method which has been followed. An investigator is left to find this out from his actual study of the catalog. This practice—or lack of practice—is clearly a strategic error. Every possible effort should be made by means of signs, guide cards, labels, etc., and even by explanatory pam-

phlets and personal assistance to render the use of the subject catalog speedy and accurate. Uniformity of treatment of subject entries is undoubtedly to be secured in the future by agreement between librarians as uniformity in author entries was in the past.

Simplicity. It must be laid down as the prime essential of all subject catalog work that the end in view is the rapid and easy consultation of the catalog by the student who uses it. I say "student," because no one spends much time on a subject catalog who is not interested in some subject to the extent of wanting to see what books the library has on that topic. Now he must not be discouraged at the outset by a formidable and intricate machine which only an expert can use. The catalog must be so constructed that he can discover easily and quickly what he wants to know. This seems a simple requisite. Yet practice shows that it is one of the most difficult ends to secure. No amount of ingenuity can make a subject catalog which shall be absolutely without flaw in the matter of uniformity; no one can always consult it without effort. The student who knows at least a little of his subject and related subjects must then be the normal "public" of a subject catalog. But his road must be made straight and the rough places must be made plain for him. Ease of consultation, then, may be laid down as a fundamental basis for work.

Rapidity and ease of consultation will be secured only by most careful planning. There are certain decisions which must be made by every librarian beginning or

revising a catalog of subjects. Once taken, these decisions must be adhered to, while a change once decided on must be carried out root and branch. Too many subject catalogs are medleys of opposing decisions of different catalogers, all made in good faith and with the best of motives. As compared with the author catalog there are few means of checking divergences. Careful planning, then, is half the battle. It matters little, from one point of view, what the decision is. The important thing is to have a conscious policy and to stick to it.

Uniformity in Treatment. The larger the library the greater is the need for uniformity in the matter of subject headings. The small library need not concern itself greatly about principles of subject entry. When its books are all easily accessible, its readers and the library staff alike will rely on classification and current bibliography rather than on catalogs. When a man can go straight to the shelves and pull down in a few minutes all the books in the library having any possible bearing on the thing he wants to know, he does not care much for a set of cards in a tray. But the library which confidently expects to become large must needs beware. The day when the librarian or reference librarian with his ordinary tools can answer all ordinary questions will pass suddenly, and then, if the subject catalog work has been badly or inadequately done, come confusion and trouble. Particularly is this true of college libraries. Their catalogs are likely to get out of hand easily, and they are

liable to periods of sudden inflation by gift, and the most careful attention is needed lest the entries under subjects become the butt of students and faculty, the despair of the reference librarian, and the torment of the cataloger.

Changes of Nomenclature. One of the greatest obstacles to successful work in this field is the unfortunate fact that fashions in nomenclature change rapidly. Such headings as Mental Philosophy, Natural Philosophy, Fluxions, and scores of others current not so long since would hardly help the student of today. But more puzzling to him than these odd and old-fashioned forms will be the vague sort of "catch-all" headings that so frequently get into card catalogs which do not have to be subjected to the test of cold print. "Practical Piety" in one card catalog I have seen was made to cover all modern sociological and economic works.

Definition. The one essential for securing continuity and correctness in subject work is definition of the subject heading combined with sharp directions as to its use in the library's practice. It is not enough to determine on a heading. It must in all doubtful cases be defined most carefully and the definition preserved. The manner of interpreting the definition in practice must also be indicated. In other words, a list of subject headings in use with all needed notes should be kept in every cataloging room as an official norm. The extent to which these notes should appear in the public catalog is a matter for individual judgment.

Encyclopaedias. Before taking up details, let me call attention to one source of assistance and guidance which is too often overlooked. Since the seventeenth century the makers of encyclopaedias have been working at this problem. Scores of excellent encyclopaedias have been in constant use in our reference rooms—and even in our cataloging rooms—but have they been studied diligently as models for headings? We may be very sure that they have been studied by their makers with exactly our chief problem in mind; and that is how to choose a caption which shall in a single easily understood word or phrase express the topic to be treated so clearly and definitely that it may be found and comprehended at once. The good encyclopaedias do not show the fatuous entries and references found even in good catalogs. There is doubtless a reason. It lies partly in the excellence of the editorial supervision for which publishers can afford to pay, and partly in the undoubted fact that each encyclopaedia is based on half a dozen, or perhaps half a hundred, predecessors, and thus the headings as well as the articles are in a continual state of revision. The fact that the headings are all in print in convenient form, and are easily seen and found, is also a great aid in producing uniformity of editorial treatment. Still the fact remains for us to ponder. Encyclopaedias seem to present fewer difficulties in consultation than subject catalogs, and are familiarly and easily used by many people to whom a card catalog is a bugbear.

Specific Headings. Everybody is agreed on the fundamental principle that in dictionary cataloging the "specific" subject must be the norm. We want to get exactly the caption which fits our book and no other. Especially do we wish to avoid general headings for treatises covering a limited field. A man looking for a book on trees does not want to be sent to look through all the cards on botany, nor does the inquirer for information about Nelson want to see all the cards on British naval history and biography. He wants what the library has about Nelson. The smallest possible unit must be sought out and made the basis for the subject heading.

Class Headings. But the library has also books—many thousands of books, probably—which do not deal with one small, particular topic. It has treatises on Botany and British naval heroes. Hence there arises of necessity a set of subjects of a general nature, which are in effect identical with the large divisions of the classifications. We have general treatises on Philosophy, on Religion, on Sociology, on Philology and so forth. And, further, we have general works on such topics as Physics, Electricity, Mathematics, Latin literature, Hydraulics, Political science, Psychology, side by side with works of equal bulk and importance on divisions of those subjects, such as Heat, Alternating currents, Differential invariants, Latin pastoral poetry, Canal locks, Proportional representation, the Sense of touch. There must be general headings, class headings, in the catalog. The difficulty is to use them wisely. These general headings

must never be used for anything but general treatises of an inclusive sort. They will be the same in a classed and in a dictionary catalog, and should be treated alike in both. Moreover, a first-rate dictionary catalog will use under these class headings—or headings common to both sorts of catalogs—a few of the simple and large sub-divisions of classifications, such as *History*, *Essays and addresses*, *Outlines*, *syllabi*, *etc.* In doing this it will not violate the dictionary principle.

But we should stop right here. Use the class headings when needed, but let everybody understand that they are strictly limited in their scope. Put it on the guide card so that all may see that "General works only are listed under this caption. For special treatises consult the cards with the heading of the particular subject wanted." An example should be given in each instance, and more than one, if necessary. In the case of the guide card for Chemistry there should be a statement that works on particular chemical products and compounds are to be sought under their own names. The illustration might perhaps take such a form as this—"for example, treatises on Chloroketodimethyltetrahydrobenzene will be found under that word."

It should be said, further, that caution is necessary at this point. Because some headings must be the same in any sort of catalog, and because some which are definitely group headings have to be used as a practical matter of common sense in a dictionary catalog, catalogers are continually reverting to these class headings.

It is vastly easier to label a book Sociology than to pin its generally elusive contents down to one particular phase of social inquiry. We all tend to move unconsciously along the lines of least resistance. We shall never get our catalog of specific headings without constant vigilance, constant self-criticism, and drastic revision. We must have class headings so long as libraries are not composed wholly of theses for the doctorate. And we must avoid them as much as possible.

Literary Form Headings. There is a special kind of class heading which occurs with exasperating frequency, i.e., the so-called "forms of literature," such as poetry, ballads, essays, orations and fiction. Shall these be left out of subject catalogs? Many libraries omit them. Shall we say to the student looking for German ballads, "They are all classified in number so and so"? But then, they are not *all* so classified. There are dozens of volumes of them in collections of one sort and another, for one thing. Shall we let novels go without subject cards and depend on a special finding list of fiction? Shall we lump them all under Fiction in the subject catalog? Shall we subdivide fiction and the "forms" by language, or perhaps by nationality? Or shall we classify fiction in our subject catalog, and put historical novels with the history divisions to which they supposedly belong? In answer, it is enough to say that the form divisions in a subject catalog when thoroughly made and kept up to date are a great help in reference work. (And the reference work should be in close touch

with the catalog work for their mutual good.) It is, moreover, a considerable advantage to carry out the principle that every author card, generally speaking, should have a subject card matching it. Incidentally it may be remarked that some librarians have found a mild form of the classification of fiction a great help. I refer to such headings as *U. S. History, Civil war, Fiction*, which have satisfied many a lazy body who wished to take his history diluted and disguised.[2]

Subject or Region. There are few librarians who will not follow us up to this point. Everyone agrees that we cannot wholly escape headings which are the same as the major divisions of any classification, and most libraries make some sort of subject lists of their works of so-called pure literature. But when we come to those large subjects which from their very nature suggest a geographical subdivision we leave uniformity behind. There is hardly any such thing, for example, as a treatment of Mathematics, or Logic, by countries, although we do find works on Greek Mathematics. These are, however, incidental to a certain period in the development of the science, and not a proper regional division such as may well be demanded in the case of Agriculture, or Geology, or Architecture. The pure sciences, then, do not enter very largely into this problem. But a very

[2] For practical illustrations of these "form headings," see the Subject Index to the London Library, London, 1909, p. xviii of the Preface and *passim* throughout the book. This is an excellent modern treatment in a book catalog of this vexing problem.

large proportion of the subjects about which books are written offer a double interest. They may be considered from the view-point of the region or country described, or from that of the subject treated. A work on the geology of Texas, for instance, may seem to belong to Texas, and to require the subheading *Geology;* or it may appear to have its chief interest for the geologist, in which case it goes under Geology, with the inevitable subhead *Texas*. This is all familiar enough. Mr. Cutter (Sec. 164) insisted that the only satisfactory solution of this problem was that of double subject entry. With this view I cannot agree. A consistent policy with regard to this class of subject headings which will rigorously enter under either the topic or the country is demanded in the interests alike of economy and of common sense. Whatever decision is taken, a reference must be made from the opposite form. Thus, if the library decides to enter under Geology.*Texas*, there should be a subject reference from Texas.*Geology*. Such a subject reference is much better than duplication of hundreds of subject cards.

But what shall the policy be? The practice of our leading printed catalogs is extremely varied. On the one hand we have a tendency to provide long lists of subheads under each country. This is the practice at least impliedly recommended in the American Library Association's "List of subject headings" by the printing of the long list of subheads to be used under country and state. On the other hand, to cite but a single instance,

the Subject Index of the British Museum restricts vigorously the entry under the country or region, and allows but few subheads. Between the two plans there is a great gulf fixed. One assumes that a reader thinks along geographical lines when he wants a book, and looks under Greece for a book on Greek Architecture or Mythology, or for a treatise on the Geology or Agriculture or Education of that country. Perhaps he does. The other presumes that a reader considers his subject first, and then runs down its geographical ramifications later. Is there any principle on which this matter may be decided? Must we in each case make special decisions? There is at least one principle which favors grouping by countries rather than by topics. It is generally held that the dictionary catalog should supplement rather than copy the classification. Now the books will doubtless be classified on the shelves by subjects rather than by country in these topics which admit of double treatment. Therefore if books treating of such topics as Education, Missions, Agriculture, Slavery, Architecture, Painting, etc., from a regional or national point of view—as Central African Missions—and not covering the whole field, are entered under the country or region, the subject catalog will show more about those regions than the classification will at any one point. This seems almost the sole argument for making use of this form of entry.

Now, on the contrary, it would seem that the British Museum practice and that of the Library of Congress are

more nearly in line with the habit of readers and the view-point of the makers of books. If we leave out the historical sciences, the main interest is the topic and not the region. In the pure sciences we have already noted the elimination of the regional or national principle. In the applied sciences and the arts, both useful and fine, we may safely do the same thing. These divisions are very extensive. It is well, then, to adopt a deliberate policy of restricting the entries under the country or region to those topics which have a strictly local interest, i.e., the field of the historical sciences, and such of the social sciences as depend for their value on local conditions. To be specific, do not put a book on the geology of Texas under Texas, but under Geology with the subheading *Texas*. Limit the subheads under a country to those which seem absolutely necessary. For everything else which might be expected under country make a subject reference card. This may be begging the question. It may be abandoning the search for a guiding principle. But it seems to me that the habit of most readers and authors is a fair guide. After all it is for them that the catalog is made.

One word before leaving this topic. At no other point of subject catalog work is definite adherence to a fixed rule more necessary than here. A decision once taken in this matter should be rigidly executed. If this is done, the people who use the catalog will quickly learn to follow the principle adopted and will in consequence consult the catalog with ease.

Ethnic Adjective. If the practice of restricting the entries under subheads of countries or locality be followed, we at once encounter the difficulty of the so-called "national adjective." Having eliminated France.*Art*, are we going to cut out French Art, Greek Mythology, Roman Roads? Certainly we must. We must say Art.*France*, Mythology.*Greece*, Roads.*Rome*, or we shall soon find ourselves in a maze of confusion. It will, however, be necessary, to use the national or linguistic adjective with the literature or language of a country or region. We shall probably be obliged to say French language and French literature, since France.*Language* and France.*Literature* do not necessarily express the same ideas. As in the case of France, so also in many other instances the national and linguistic areas are not identical. German language and German literature, for example, are wider in their scope than the political boundaries of the present German state, and the same is true of the English language. The linguistic and national areas are different in Switzerland, in India, and in many other regions. Another objection to the use of the ethnic or national adjective is found in the fact that we have all sorts of corporations and institutions whose names begin with American, British, French, etc. Read the headings beginning with either "American" or "British" in the published catalogs made on the dictionary principle of any of our libraries, and see what a medley is produced by the mingling of names and topics. The national adjective should be eliminated from subject

headings, save for the two linguistic usages mentioned. This will cause some trouble, for a great many people are accustomed to think of American Indians, British commerce, French porcelain, etc. But the practice will save trouble, too. It will reduce the number of places in which one must look for a topic (the chief drawback of Poole's Index), it will obviate much apparent confusion in the arrangement of headings, and it will introduce some system into alphabetical subject catalogs at a point where system is much needed. The practice of the encyclopaedias is against the extensive use of the national adjective.[3]

It may be objected to this that we merely transfer our excessive use of subheadings from the country heading to the subject or topic heading. It may further be urged that by this plan the subdivisions under topics become very unwieldy. Of course the subheads, undoubtedly become more numerous under the topic, but they belong there rationally, and there will be plenty left under the country. The person consulting the catalog is obliged, it is true, to run his eye over many guide cards, and perhaps over several trays to find his particular books. But that is far easier for him than going from one part of the catalog to another, looking now under France and now under Spain for a work on the mineralogy of the Pyrenees, for instance. Again he remains certain, after looking at the subdivisions under Mineralogy, that

[3] There are some exceptions, notably the most recent edition of Brockhaus.

he will not have to look also at the cards headed Pyrenees Mts.—he has all the cards before him for Mineralogy. We cannot eliminate subheadings from the alphabetical subject catalog. At least, if we can, no one has arisen to show us how. If a separate guide card is used for each heading and subheading, we shall find the difficulty of consultation very greatly diminished.

Inversion. It will have occurred to those who have followed this discussion thus far that a good many subheadings under both country and subject might be avoided by the use of inversion. We might say, "Roads, Roman," "Architecture, Gothic," "Psychology, Social," etc. The use of inversion has its chief defense, it seems to me, in the fact that it helps to keep together related topics. It is certainly convenient to have "Psychology, Animal," "Psychology, Comparative," "Psychology, Morbid," "Psychology, Social" in orderly sequence and close together. But despite this convenience, as a matter of form of heading, the practice of inversion is to be regarded as fully as pernicious in the dictionary subject catalog as in the author catalog. The objections to it are patent and well known. There is one catalog which regularly and always inverts, which enters under an adjective form only in the rarest instances. I refer to the magnificent Index Catalogue of the Surgeon General's Library. No one will dispute the high authority of this catalog as a scientific product. It is the most remarkable thing of the kind ever done in this country. But I imagine that despite its example we may

be more truly scientific if we set our faces squarely against inversion. The worst thing about inversion is the utter lack of certainty as to which of several forms may be used. If in our author catalogs we have come to the point where we can write "Michigan. University," why should we not write "Psychology. *Animals?*" There is not space to elaborate here the argument against inversion. We must be content to dismiss it with the single proviso that well established phrases beginning with an adjective such as Republican Party, Political Science, etc., need not be called in question either by those who would always invert to serve their convenience, or those who are steadfastly against the practice of inversion. The larger question whether the ordinary phrase, e.g., Comparative anatomy, Animal psychology, should not always be employed instead of some device whereby the noun remains in the first position is well discussed by Mr. Cutter in his *Rules.* My own opinion is for the regular use of the current phrase in the form in which it habitually occurs in titles, remembering that there are numerous cases in which a caption with proper subhead better expresses the idea.

Geographical Headings. There is one class of subjects which gives trouble alike to classifiers and catalogers. Wherever a classification or a catalog is subdivided on a geographical basis, or wherever geographical headings are given, the fact stares us in the face that "geographical expressions," to use Prince Metternich's phrase, are by no means permanent or dependable. The

map of the world has suffered startling changes since books began to be made and the last decade has seen the greater part of the world undergoing changes in boundaries. Certain difficulties which confront us in geographical headings deserve attention.

Continents. Even the continents give trouble. The terms America and Asia are used very loosely in popular speech, and even in indexes of subjects. Does North America include Mexico and Central America? Where does Western Asia leave off and Central Asia begin? Does the term America as a heading or subheading include both North and South America? Shall we write America, North or North America? What do we mean by Central Africa? These are questions which have but to be asked to raise sharply the point that definition and consistent adherence to definition are essential in the geographical terms to be used. The official catalog of subjects should certainly contain very carefully planned directions as to the use of continental designations, as well as those of the smaller divisions of geography.

Extinct and changing nations. But troublesome as ill-defined geographical concepts may be, they are nothing in the way of difficulty compared to the names of regions which have ceased to represent present political conditions. There are a number of countries which no longer exist as states, whose political life as separate entities has ceased. A region such as the former Austro-Hungarian Empire, for example, which has been split up and in part absorbed by several countries offers a most perplexing

problem. The word Austria-Hungary corresponds to nothing on the map or in official gazetteers, but it is still in everybody's mouth. Travellers still use the old national name on title pages of descriptive works; historians and others write on former or even present-day conditions. And yet in our larger libraries we have official documents and other works treating of parts of this formerly combined and independent state from the standpoint of Czecko-Slovakian, Jugo-Slavian and Roumanian provinces. We can not get around the difficulty by lumping everything under the popular name. Neither can we ignore it in the case of travel and descriptive works. There are plenty of similar cases, although few with such complications. It seems that the common name must still be used where it is employed on title pages, and that the official regional designation of the present day must be employed where needed because of either the title or the contents of the work. This will necessitate a lengthy "See also" reference, a thing to be avoided wherever possible.

The case of Poland is even more complicated. Long a powerful monarchy, in the eighteenth century it was absorbed by Prussia, Austria and Russia. But Polish nationality persisted and the name Poland was constantly used, even though libraries were forced to catalog official documents under their accurate headings. Now in the twentieth century Poland is once more a political entity, and what of the old subject entries?

Ancient Regional Names. Ancient and mediaeval states and countries with no continuing name or precise modern geographical equivalent give less difficulty. Their ancient names may safely be used. The trouble is, however, that both descriptive and historical works dealing wholly with present-day (or at least modern) conditions frequently employ the ancient name in titles. In such cases the modern form of name should be regularly used as a heading. Such ancient regions as Pontus, Epirus, Dacia, Africa, Gaul, Granada (Kingdom) may well receive separate subject entry, but it will instantly be seen how much confusion would arise from using these headings for modern works dealing with present conditions. Take "Africa," for example. Properly used it means (in antiquity) the single Roman province erected on the ruins of the Carthaginian city-state, limited in its extent to about the boundaries of modern Tunis. So used the term has a distinct value. But a modern work on Tunis, or even a discussion of archaeological problems occurring in the limits of the ancient province should not receive the heading *Africa*. There is, then, great need for care and a well-defined policy in these matters of ancient geographical designations which have no precise modern equivalents. Somewhere a very careful working out of the proper limits of the subject heading adopted for such countries and regions must be accessible to the cataloging staff, and perhaps to the public. It will not do, for instance, to say merely, "Tunis—See also Africa (Roman province)"; "Africa (Roman province)—See

also Tunis." These loose "See also" references are the refuge of careless catalogers. In their stead must be a careful explanatory note in both official and public catalogs giving the dates and boundaries within which the heading is applicable.

"See Also." It may be worth while to insert at this point a word as to these "See also" references. It was a rule at some time in the dim and distant past of cataloging to make "See also" references from each subject named on a title page to every other subject so named. All students of cataloging methods well know some of the ludicrous results of this rule. It is creditably reported that as a result of this rule rigidly applied such references as these were made and printed. "Brain, *See also* Cheek, Tumors of the"; "Cheek, Tumors of the, *See also* Brain," because forsooth both subjects got into one of the long-winded titles of earlier days. Probably these "See also" references cannot be wholly eliminated from catalogs. It is a very good thing at times to have a student reminded of allied topics and similar headings. But the tendency to their abuse is so great that it would seem a better course to make carefully worded explanations rather than to multiply these references. And we should not suffer greatly were they excluded entirely from the subject catalog.

Period Divisions. To return to matters geographical. Few problems are more difficult as matters of actual practice than the making of a perfectly clear arrangement in a card catalog of easily understood and intelligible

well-defined periods and treat these as if they were separate wholes, or whether we regard the country in all its history as one and arrange topics under it with chronological divisions, the dates of the different periods will have to be worked out with care and recorded in the official list of headings. When this is done it will probably be found that the books seldom fit the dates previously arranged. What to do with overlapping books—books which fit into no general scheme—is a sore problem in cataloging as in classification. We must either go on forever making new and more minute subdivisions and arranging the subject cards chronologically by the first date in the heading, or else we must assign the subject by the preponderance of interest of the book itself, placing it in that division of the subject where most of the narrative or discussion falls. The majority of catalogers will doubtless prefer the latter method. The specific dates may be put in the heading as a matter of guidance to the person consulting the catalog, but in this case they will be ignored in filing.

Rome presents worse difficulties than Egypt. In the first place we have to encounter the fact that both city and the state—originally one—have a voluminous literature. Confusion here is disastrous, and yet it is found in many catalogs. The city of the seven hills must be a subject by itself, reserved for separate treatment. Its municipal history is to be kept separate—where possible—from the march of the mighty empire, and its monuments must receive treatment distinct

from that of Roman remains in general. It would seem a very good plan in arranging cards to put the country heading first, then the city heading, and finally the heading for its numerous monuments and regions. Thus we should have such classes of headings as Rome.*History. Empire*, Rome (city).*History.Middle Ages*, Rome(city). Forum Romanum. If this distinction between the city and the state is not made in this and other cases, we shall have a confusion which will make our catalogs unusable. Moreover, in treating the Roman state it will be as necessary to define dates and boundaries as in the case of Egypt. There is no need to go on to speak in detail of Greece and other countries having a continuous recorded history of many centuries. The need for careful planning in giving subjects to works on such countries has been fully shown.

Ancient and Modern Names. Still another cause of confusion is closely allied to these we have just been considering. We have numerous cases in which ancient and modern geographical terms do not mean the same thing. I have already cited Africa as an example. The loose habit of catalogers of projecting modern geographical terms into the past is most discouraging to students. Take, for example, such designations as Germany and Austria, to cite large regions. Their boundaries are not today what they were even fifty years since, and books describing particular regions formerly in their limits and referring wholly to former times should not be listed under the modern caption, if

suitable ones can be found in the older names. This is merely the principle of the specific heading applied to geographical problems. Again in certain particulars the modern geographical term may represent a very much smaller area than the same term at an earlier date. Venice and Genoa are instances in point, and many more might easily be cited. A book on the Venetian remains in the Greek islands hardly deserves a subject, Venice. *Description and travel;* although one on the Venetian supremacy in the Levant might well have a subject entry under Venice. Separate geographical entities such as islands and peninsulas are more easily treated as a rule than other regions, as confusion is less likely to arise in their cases.

Finally a word should be said in protest against subject headings of an indefinite sort for frontier or partially settled regions. "The West" in American history is one such. The phrase "Old Southwest" is another. The objection lies rather against the indefinite nature of the heading than against its use, if once it be well defined. The various regions in Africa which are even now undergoing transformations due to settlement by both Europeans and Arabs offer similar difficulties.

Subjects Having an Old and Modern Literature. If countries having a continuous recorded history present difficult problems to the cataloger, so also do subjects of inquiry which have given occupation to generations of scholars. Such studies as political science, economics, philosophy, mathematics, chemistry, botany, medicine,

theology, rhetoric, etc., had their beginning for our Western world in Greece and are live topics today. History and description of countries show the same long line of writers. Now it is obvious that some discrimination is needed in cataloging the authors who for twenty odd centuries have discussed such important subjects as the theory of the state, the art of healing, or the science of mathematics. The distinctions which a printed catalog can show by varieties of type and the rapid view of many pages with their headings are of course impossible in a card catalog. If it is manifestly improper to compel the student seeking the library's best treatise on agriculture to turn over numerous cards for editions of Cato and the other *Scriptores de re rustica*, so also is it unwise to neglect the fact that agriculture and all other sciences have their historical side. If we are going to give subjects to all our books, then Cato must have a subject card somewhere under agriculture. Here is where the average dictionary catalog breaks down. It furnishes under such topics as those we have mentioned a dreary array of cards, frequently many trays of them, through which the discouraged student must work to find his modern books. Every hundred thousand volumes added to the library but increases the task of consultation. The cards thus become what no one wants, an alphabetical list of all the writers who have ever treated of a given topic. The catalog must either distinguish books whose value *for the subject* is purely historical, or it must arrange its cards chronologically (by author), putting the latest

works first. In other words, the alphabetical principle of subarrangement must be abandoned under subjects, or else we must introduce another division under these subjects having a continuous history, i.e., a class of books having an historical value only.

But when does a book begin to have a merely historical value? There's the rub! It is not possible to determine this by chronology alone. Can we consider Aristotle of merely historical importance in the discussion of poetry or drama, of political science or ethics? Most assuredly not. But yet his works on physics and natural history are absolutely without profit to the average student of today. No one will say that Kant's writings are out of date, and yet his psychology would hardly benefit the modern student in our college classes or laboratories. It is plain that discrimination of the highest order must be employed in this matter, or else we must adopt some mechanical arrangement such as the filing of cards in chronological order, which after all works a sort of rough justice in the matter of relative values. Who can say that the trays headed Theology or Law in most of our catalogs of libraries of over one hundred thousand volumes are practically useful as they stand today? Who would not rather consult a good bibliography and then the author catalog for books on those topics than attack the direful array of cards in the hope by some means of at length securing an interesting and valuable set of references?

In formal political history and in economic history as well the sources should certainly be distinguished from the recent treatises. The *Germania* of Tacitus, for instance, is an excellent source for the early history of the German Empire, but it is positively foolish to list it side by side with the works of Von Sybel and Ranke under Germany.*History*. The subhead of "Sources" under history is a convenient and valuable limbo for bygone works and for collections of documents. There is opposition, and sensible opposition, however, to using it for merely obsolete treatises.

Arrangement by Period. We might adopt some such scheme as this:

Political Science. *Modern works (since 1850) and important earlier works.*

— —*Works between 1500 and 1850.*

— —*Mediaeval works.*

— —*Ancient works.*

The divisions suggested here might perhaps be the same in all cases, or they might better be made to conform to well-recognized divisions in the history of each topic. The alternative plan is the arrangement of cards by date of publication, or by date of the first publication of the book (to keep editions together). The latter arrangement seems best, although it by no means commits the library to the position of assuming that the most recent work is necessarily the best. Still the chances are that it represents the most recent stage of investigation. Almost every librarian is willing to concede this in the

matter of bibliographies, acknowledging that the last to appear should first meet the eye of the person consulting the catalog. Why not adopt the same principle for every topic, as is done in some of our libraries? We have, be it remembered, the author entries at hand for every one who already knows the authors he wants. Why compel the seeker after information to wade through another author list under each topic? It has already been observed that an annotated catalog would be almost forced to put first its cards for the books most highly recommended.[4]

Number of Subject Cards to a Book. There are a few practical points to be taken up before closing this chapter. First, shall we definitely limit the number of subject cards to a given book? In view of the immense size to which card catalogs are growing is it wise to say that when the library reaches a certain size—say 500,000 volumes—it will henceforth assume that the necessity for making cards for any other than the subject of prime interest in a book has passed? Shall we take it for granted that there will always be other works which cover the topics of secondary interest? This view is maintained in some libraries. I venture, however, in opposition to this idea, to call attention to the statistics

[4] *Cf.* Voge, A. L. Chronological arrangement of subject cards in a dictionary catalog. *Library Journal*, June, 1917, vol. 41, p. 441–443, for a brief statement of the practice of the Mechanics Institute Library of San Francisco. The chronological arrangement has been long employed in certain libraries chiefly devoted to science.

of certain work at Princeton published in the *Library Journal* for June, 1906. It was there shown that the number of subject cards per main entry was 1.47, and per title 1.2, although no restriction was placed on the catalogers other than a *rigid insistence on the specific heading in all cases*. This is so nearly the result aimed at in the rule that I submit that it is a better way of attaining the desired restriction of the unduly rapid growth of the card catalog than the strict limitation to one subject per book. It permits the liberal handling of a book which treats definitely of several topics, and yet it does not too greatly burden the subject catalog. The device of using but one subject entry for the various editions of a work whose value is chiefly historical would diminish the per cent of subject to author cards to less than one.

Again, it may not be amiss to urge that the revision and coördination of subject headings should be definitely assigned to one person. Only thus can continuity and uniformity of the work be secured. Particularly is this provision needed in our largest libraries. It is also a most vital matter of practice that the chief reference librarian should be in constant touch with the cataloger who passes finally on subject headings. They will work together to great mutual advantage.

Official List of Subject Headings. Moreover I wish once more to set forth the imperative necessity for an official list of headings in use in the library.[5]

[5] See above, p. 89.

This should be kept up to date with the utmost care. Each cataloger should have in convenient form a list of all subheads previously authorized under each class of topics, together with definitions of all these subheads. The official list without definitions and notes will be of some small value, but with them will be vastly more useful. It should be kept where every cataloger can consult it. The American Library Association list, the Sydney list and the Library of Congress list, admirable as they are in their own way, will not suffice for any large library. An up-to-date list of subjects with adequate definitions kept on cards, is an absolute necessity in a well-ordered catalog department.

Is the card catalog of subjects alphabetically arranged a real service to an institution? Most assuredly it is. When once it is made on consistent principles, when the student no longer has to fumble long trays of cards without sufficient headings or guides, filled with all the contradictory accumulations of generations of catalogers, when the specific topic stands out prominently, when each subject capable of two interpretations is sharply defined on a guide card, when consistency in geographical matters and uniformity of entry and sub-entry in topics of debatable form have been reached, there is no reason why a student should not find the card catalog of subjects self-interpreting, inclusive, useful. It has the all-important merit of definite-

ness and point. It tells anyone who knows his topic what he can get directly on it. It lists both the obsolete book and the dead and gone state by themselves. It opens up to the reader the contents of the library. It is, in short, an alphabetical subject index to the books. If this is not worth while, what library effort is? If this be formal, dry-as-dust work, why work with books at all? Our aim as librarians is not merely to accumulate books. It is to help the reader to the books he wants. In a large library the only tool which accomplishes this result is the catalog, and of this the subject catalog is the part most difficult to make, most useful when well made.

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Sans Tache

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SANS TACHE

Sans Tache

IN THE "elder days of art" each artist or craftsman enjoyed the privilege of independent creation. He carried through a process of manufacture from beginning to end. The scribe of the days before the printing press was such a craftsman. So was the printer in the days before the machine process. He stood or fell, as a craftsman, by the merit or demerit of his finished product.

Modern machine production has added much to the worker's productivity and to his material welfare; but it has deprived him of the old creative distinctiveness. His work is merged in the work of the team, and lost sight of as something representing him and his personality.

Many hands and minds contribute to the manufacture of a book, in this day of specialization. There are seven distinct major processes in the making of a book: The type must first be set; by the monotype method, there are two processes, the "keyboarding" of the MS and the casting of the type from the perforated paper rolls thus produced. Formulas and other intricate work must be hand-set; then the whole brought together ("composed") in its true order, made into pages and forms. The results must be checked by proof reading at each stage. Then comes the "make-ready" and press-run and finally the binding into volumes.

All of these processes, except that of binding into cloth or leather covers, are carried on under our roof.

The motto of the Waverly Press is *Sans Tache.* Our ideal is to manufacture books "*without blemish*"—worthy books, worthily printed, with worthy typography—books to which we shall be proud to attach our imprint, made by craftsmen who are willing to accept open responsibility for their work, and who are entitled to credit for creditable performance.

The printing craftsman of today is quite as much a craftsman as his predecessor. There is quite as much discrimination between poor work and good. We are of the opinion that the individuality of the worker should not be wholly lost. The members of our staff who have contributed their skill of hand and brain to this volume are:

Composing Room: John Flanagan, William Fite, George Moss, Herbert Leitch, Anthony Wagner, William Sanders, Richard King, Henry Shea, James Jackson, Henry Miller, Theodore Nilson, Arthur Baker, Walter Phillips, Edward Rice.

Keyboard: Katharine Kocent, Helen Twardowicz.

Casters: Kenneth Brown, Ernest Wann, Mahlon Robinson, Charles Aher, George Smith, Frank Malanosky, Martin Griffen, Henry Lee, Charles Fick.

Press Room: Clarence Ridgway, Raymond Bauer.

Proof Room: Sarah Katzin, Mary Reed, Alice Reuter, Ruth Treischman, Ethel Strasinger, Angeline Eifert, Lucile Bull, Dorothy Strasinger, Audrey Tanner, Lillian Gilland, Geraldine Browne, George Southworth, Ida Zimmerman, Catherine Miller.

Cutter: William Armiger.

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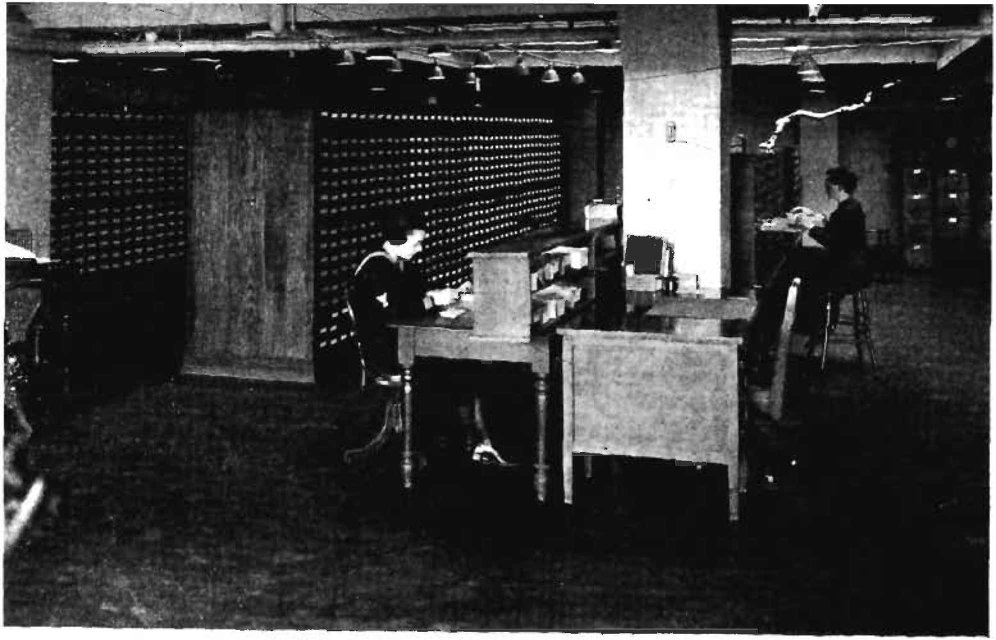

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